OU_148933

# PROBLEMS

# IN

# EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

CHARLES L. ANSPACH, Ph.D.

PRESIDENT, ASHLAND COLLEGE

AND

WRAY H. CONGDON, Ph.D.

DIRECTOR OF ADMISSIONS, LEHIGH UNIVERSITY
FORMERLY INSTRUCTOR OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

# EDITOR'S INTRODUCTION

We have long proposed that any sound theory of education rests upon a knowledge of individual development in a social setting. Those who aspire to render efficient service must be schooled not only in the psychology of learning but quite as certainly in social psychology and in sociology. If psychology contributes to an understanding of the methods to be employed in stimulating the individual in certain well-defined areas which make for his growth and development, it is just as certainly true that educational sociology deals with the goals to be achieved and the motives and objectives which must be utilized in the realization of desirable ends.

There are two ways in which the field may be presented. The one discusses principles and practices and leaves to the student their application in concrete situations. The other — the one employed by the authors of this book — takes the social situation in which pupils and teachers find themselves, whether in school or out in the larger society of which the school is a part, and inquires concerning principles which are applicable and solutions which are socially desirable.

The problems presented in this text are those which most commonly occur. There is enough of suggestion to set the student to work upon the solution. The problems are stated so vividly as to challenge the student's attention. The bibliography in each case is highly selected and sufficient to present the more important points of view. One who works through the problems presented will find himself discussing philosophies which vary in their foundation principles and, as a result of his study, should develop a social philosophy of education.

GEORGE D. STRAYER

# A WORD TO STUDENTS

*The Purpose of the Problems.* The first purpose of this series of problems is to bring you concrete educational and social questions constantly arising in the field. In this way reading assignments can be definitely directed to more meaningful ends. Another purpose of these problems is to train you in the organization of information from different sources and in its application to specific social and educational problems such as you will have to solve later in your teaching experience.

These problems are arranged so as to give you a breadth of source material impossible in a single textbook. Thus you have an opportunity to analyze and evaluate different points of view and select one which is the best for your purpose.

Finally, through the explicitness of the problem, the direction of the discussion, and the specificness of the answers required, upon the completion of each problem you should experience that satisfaction which comes from the achievement of definite goals.

*Organization of the Problems.* Because of the importance of the philosophy of motivation and application, these problems were brought together with the following points in mind:

1. The statement of the "problem" is first made to give definiteness and direction to your thinking.

2. The purpose of the "case" is to illustrate the problem in hand and to make possible practical application of the principles of educational sociology which follow.

3. Through use of the questions under the " discussion," your thinking can now be concentrated upon the important issues of the problem. Furthermore, these questions are organized about a few very definite sociological principles and concepts in each problem. In every problem the last question is intended as a summary question, the importance of which cannot be too greatly emphasized. In this way, before you leave any problem, the important principles of educational sociology involved must be clearly recognized and specifically stated.

4. Under " sources " you are given references to most of the leading books in educational sociology and many articles in current educational and sociological literature.

*Aids to the Solution of the Problems.* Read carefully the statement of the problem to understand its full significance. Read through the case, determine its significance in the light of the stated problem, and analyze the issues involved. Next, give consideration to the questions asked in the discussion, comparing your analysis of the issues involved with these questions.

With a clear understanding in your own mind of the questions involved, read such of the source materials listed as the teacher may direct, and jot down tentative answers.

In order to supplement the information you have gathered, consult such additional references and sources as you have time for or interest in following up. It will greatly add interest and assist in your own organization of your problem solutions if you can take time to talk over these problems with other members of the class before preparing your final answers.

Now you are ready to prepare your solution to the problem. Under each question list your specific points in clear and concise statements, carefully organized. Quote the major sources of your information. Finally, after the class discussion of the problem, be sure that you can formulate the definite principles of educational sociology involved.

There are various types of course organization in which this problem book will readily find a useful place.

1. *Traditional Organization.* Here the problems can be used simply as supplementary to whatever textbook the course is based upon, and will prove a helpful method of stimulating pupil interest and enriching their understanding and outlook in the field of educational sociology. Problems can be assigned in whatever order may fit the instructor's organization of the course.

2. *Group Discussion.* While under this method the problems are answered individually by each student as in the above organization, there is also provided an opportunity for discussion by the whole class in which the give and take of group debate adds interest and increases the learning outcomes. Considerable class time may be given to class discussion in which every individual is encouraged to take a part; to organization of the contributions made by the class; and to evaluation of these contributions and their summarization into rather specific conclusions to which the majority of the class as well as the instructor can agree. An interesting concluding exercise at the end of a topic or unit is the use of the panel-jury discussion on some selected topic of a controversial nature followed by a short period for discussion and comment by the whole class.

3. *Committee Organization.* In some types of class organization, there is already provided a large amount of supplementary

work, such as individual reports, social surveys of educational problems and the like. In such a type of organization, the problems can be used in two ways. There will be certain students who will take more readily to the solution of problems than to other types of supplementary work, and for such the organization of this problem book will prove a valuable aid to the instructor. But more important is the use of these problems for the whole class. Where a great deal of supplementary work is already provided not much time is left for the class discussion of problems. Still the values accruing from such discussion of pertinent problems are still needed and the exercise is felt to be of too great an aid to learning to be entirely dispensed with. In such an organization of class work, a large amount of these problem-solving and organizational values can be conserved by having the problems assigned to small committees of from three to five, each of which will work out and report to the class upon such problems as may be assigned to it. The committee members can then present to the class the results of their committee discussions and conclusions and as much or as little of the class time for discussion may be used as seems available. Thus, an excellent opportunity for rehearsing small groups in the much needed virtues of group attack and co-operation is made possible, and many of the values of the group discussion procedure are also conserved.

4. *Lecture Method.* Many instructors feel that, especially with large-sized class sections, the lecture method of presentation is the most desirable form to use on the college levels, particularly because of the more thoroughly complete presentation and logical organization made possible. The use of the problem book is also easily adapted to this form of organization. Such problems can be selected as best adapt themselves as illustrative of the material of each lecture, and their assignment will give students specific outside work and will provide definite means

for checking on their reading outside of the class. There are two possible ways of using these problems in classes organized on the lecture method plan.

a. The problems may be assigned before the lectures are presented in order to orient the student in the field of discussion, define for him the important issues involved, and thus enable him better to follow and understand the materials of the lecture to be given. The problem may be handed to the instructor before or after the lecture, according to whether or not it is desirable that the student shall have the benefits of the lecture to aid him in formulating his answers to the questions on the problem.

b. Since much of the value of class discussion is lost where the lecture method is followed exclusively, many instructors feel that it is more valuable to assign the problem after the lecture, thereby motivating interest in and attention to the lecture which will aid the attentive student in his problem solutions. Also, the student is then given an opportunity for the practical application of the sociological principles presented in the lecture, to the problem situation which he must solve. Students will then seek to answer the problem questions in the light of the lecture materials plus such additional reading as they may find necessary to get a complete understanding of the principles and issues involved. Some of the more practical values inherent in the problem-solving technique are thus retained in the lecture-method plan even though actual class discussions are not often possible.

5. *Individualized Procedure.* Under this method of organization the work of the semester is generally divided into such major units of interest as the instructor sees fit. Each student is permitted to study assigned problems and work upon each unit at his own pace, taking an examination over each unit as he is ready for it and so progressing at his own individual rate.

Obviously, certain more capable or more interested students will progress more rapidly than others. For such, extra units of work over and above the average for the class may be assigned with the possibility of working on a higher grade level or of obtaining perhaps an extra course credit. Similarly, the slow or disinterested student who does less than the average for the class will either automatically drop to a lower grade level or receive fewer course credits for the term's work. By this sliding scale of assignments of grades or of credits for the course, the work can be readily individualized without impairing the progress of the more capable or carrying the incapable or disinterested student upon the wave of the progress of the whole class. The use of definite problems by which both a quantitative and a qualitative criterion of progress can be set up in approximately standard terms for the different members of the class even though they are progressing at different rates of speed, becomes an invaluable aid to the instructor.

Some instructors have followed the plan of providing a class library in a room where students of the course can meet and discuss their problems together. This is particularly successful where students are proceeding at their individual paces, as the better students are soon too far ahead of the laggards to assent readily to acting as a crutch for them. Such give and take of experience and understanding as would go on in such a socialized learning situation is considered highly desirable so long as one student does not simply copy *in toto* the work of another, which possibility is not at all increased here as compared to the ordinary situations under which students would prepare their work. In some cases, students themselves have provided the class library in the following way: Each student will contribute to a class library fund, whereupon he buys his problem book but no textbook. Instead of putting his money into a textbook, he contributes to the fund that amount which he would prob-

ably lose when reselling his text as a secondhand book at the end of the course, which the large majority of college students must do. Thus, the difference between the original cost of an average text and its resale value — at least one dollar — will be received from each student for the class library fund. Such students as may prefer to buy a book for permanent possession may, after consultation with the instructor, buy their personal copy and put it on loan in the class library for the term. However, since the majority of the students will doubtless prefer the former procedure, in the course of a few successive terms of the operation of this plan, a very adequate class library can be built up, and the later contributions to the fund can be utilized to purchase more recent titles as they appear and to extend the sources beyond the requirements of a minimum library. At the same time, the plan is operated at a real economy for the students, not to mention the desirability of the students feeling that they are " contributing " something of lasting and accumulating value to their college. This plan is of course unnecessary in larger institutions where ample library facilities are available.

In assigning problems, more satisfactory results can be obtained by first going over the problem with the students in class, pointing out preferred references, and helping the students to understand and clearly define the main issues involved. This will further aid in directing the students' reading and thinking to the desired ends with greater economy of time and effort.

# CONTENTS

## I. INTRODUCTION

## II. FORMAL AGENCIES THAT EDUCATE — THE SCHOOL

## III. FORMAL AGENCIES THAT EDUCATE — VARIOUS SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

## IV. INFORMAL AGENCIES THAT EDUCATE — PERSONAL AGENCIES

## VII. SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCA-
## TIONAL PROCEDURES — DISCIPLINE

## VIII. SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCA-
## TIONAL PROCEDURES — CURRICULUM

## IX. SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCA-
## TIONAL PROCEDURES — TEACHING METHODS
## AND SCHOOL POPULATION

## X. EDUCATIONAL CONTRIBUTIONS TO SOCIAL
## PROGRESS

## INTRODUCTION

I n the study of educational and sociological problems in this book you are given the opportunity of discovering the interplay between education and sociology in the creation and solution of social problems. Contrary to opinion in some quarters, many social problems have both educational and sociological aspects. These two fields of thought must be considered in a study of causation, influence, and solution. It is important that the student at the very outset of his study consider the relationships between sociology and education.

Several contiguous arcs of a circle may be used to picture the interplay of education and sociology. Education at one time may act upon sociological theory, forcing modification and then incorporating parts of it. It is a circular response action — the one acting upon and modifying the other and in turn being acted upon. Again the two may be thought of as twins, alike in many characteristics, having common purposes, relationships, techniques, and patterns, yet each retaining a distinct individuality. As one twin must be understood and appreciated before the other can be properly understood and appreciated; so education and sociology must be recognized, understood, and appreciated, to understand, appreciate, and solve many social problems.

The interplay and relationship is definitely realized when attacking such social problems as industrial waste, production, distribution and consumption, wealth and income, poverty,

crime, drunkenness, family disintegration, recreation, international relations, group relationships, and many kindred problems.

The importance of sociology as an aid to the solution of educational problems is immediately discovered when we are confronted with such problems as school support, discipline, teacher-parents relationships, curriculum construction, "fads and frills," education for life, and many others. The school objectifying education and the community representing sociology are both aspects of the same thing. They are pointed toward the same end but in the past have evolved separate and independent theory. Now, they are being brought together and harmonized.

The first problem in the book is designed to bring out this relationship. The student after studying it should have a clear-cut conception of: (1) the meaning of education; (2) the meaning of sociology; (3) the intimate relationship of education and sociology; (4) the relationship of education and sociology to the other social sciences; and (5) the large number of social and educational problems involving these various fields for solution.

## EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

PROBLEM. *To show the relationship between general sociology and educational sociology.*

*Discussion:*

1. List as many reasons as possible showing why you think that a background of sociology is essential to an understanding of educational procedures.

2. As a prospective teacher, what is the relative importance to yourself of such courses as educational history, educational psychology, educational philosophy, educational method, and educational sociology? Show specifically how each of these courses contributes to an essential understanding and interpretation of education.

3. Evaluate critically this statement: The ideal of individualized education has been carried to such extremes that it now becomes necessary to emphasize a social interpretation of education that will recall our attention to group needs, unless we become seriously biased in our educational thinking.

4. List a few specific educational problems to which you think a course in educational sociology ought to contribute answers.

5. List what you think ought to be desirable outcomes of a course in educational sociology in terms of teacher preparation.

6. Give a clear, complete, and concise definition of educational sociology.

*Sources:*

   1. Bogardus, Chapter 1.
   2. Good, Chapter 1.
   3. Kinneman, Chapters 3, 5.
   4. Kulp, Chapters 23, 24, 25.
   5. Ogburn, W. F., and Goldenweiser, A., *The Social Sciences and Their Relationships,* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1933.
   6. Payne, Chapters 1, 2.
   7. Peters, Chapter 1.
   8. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 1.
   9. Smith, *Principles,* Chapters 1, 2.

## FORMAL AGENCIES THAT EDUCATE —
## THE SCHOOL

EDUCATION as an organized formal agency charged with the responsibility of educating the young is comparatively recent, when measured in terms of social development. It is true, of course, that primitive and loosely organized societies have devised methods for the transmission of those things they believed essential to the continuity of their social organizations. It is only as social groups accumulated bodies of information, skills, and techniques — believed essential to social continuity — that a formal social institution was established. A simple, primitive society does not have a great deal to perpetuate, but a complex and intricate society has much to hand on to the next generation. As written language, rules and regulations of government, and sanctions of social tradition and usage develop, the necessity of providing methods of continuity develops also. Simple societies are concerned, primarily, with the fundamental drives of food, clothing, and shelter, while complex societies are concerned with these same requirements plus many of a more intricate nature. Primitive societies were concerned with perpetuating the past as sacred traditions and were dominated by a fear of the future. Modern complex societies are concerned with the past as a source of information essential to an intelligent approach to the future, realizing that salvation is not in the past but in a planned future. Thus, today, society has con-

structed the institution of the school and has formally charged
it with the responsibility of educating the young.

The school is now considered essential by social leaders be-
cause it is the only social institution which can be charged with
the responsibility of transmitting the racial experiences deemed
necessary to social existence. The recorded discoveries of the
past are so numerous that a formal method of imparting them
is necessary. It is exceedingly dangerous in planning a social
economy to leave future leaders uninformed of past events.
Thus, the curriculum has been formulated with two purposes:
first, to furnish information on past achievements and mis-
takes; and second, to afford an introduction to present life
situations, so that an intelligent approach may be made to the
future. The curriculum is indispensable to social progress for
it is in this stream of racial experience that the youth is equipped
to adjust to the social conditions in which he finds himself. It
is here that he is to find the organized experiences necessary to
living.

There is also a double responsibility here: society establishes
the school not only for social perpetuation but also that the in-
dividual may be equipped for a happy and normal existence.
Democracy has come to mean many things, but in a primary
sense it must mean equality of opportunity to develop up to the
limit of one's capacity. Therefore, society must provide a formal
institution which will assist individuals of all types — the physi-
cally handicapped, the mentally handicapped, the normal, and
the gifted — by giving them abundant opportunities. Anything
less than this is not democracy in educational or social oppor-
tunity.

In recent times, conditioned by social complexity, new forces
have arisen which are inclined to change the entire social or-
ganization. The old frontier of production has been overshad-
owed by the new frontier of distribution; the old frontier of

isolation and limited communication has given way to the new frontier of social control over communication and social proximity; and the old frontier of nationalism is being broken down by the new frontier of internationalism. As new social needs develop, social institutions are devised to meet the needs. The school is the formal educational institution established to construct and reconstruct in accord with the new social demands.

It is the purpose of the problems outlined in this section to present: (1) the importance of the school as a formal social institution; (2) the right of society to establish such an institution and to require attendance; (3) the need for such an institution in promoting social progress; (4) the need for an extension of educational opportunities, and (5) the importance of providing a new education for new social needs.

# SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT THROUGH FORMAL EDUCATION

PROBLEM. *Is formal education necessary to the progress of society?*

*Case:*

A school teacher married a young lawyer in the community. He was a man of wealth and prestige. Two children were born to the couple, Samuel Jr. and Gertrude. As a result of her own independent personality and her experience as a school teacher, the mother felt that she could educate her children more satisfactorily than the public schools. She objected to the " lock-. step " type of education and also to the fact that her children would have to mingle with children whom she considered uncultured and undesirable associates. She therefore did not let Sam and Gertrude attend the public schools until they were ready for high school. She taught them herself and did it well, so that they were able to enter high school without any scholastic deficiencies. However, they found it very difficult to get along with the children of such varying backgrounds of home life and training as they found in the high school. It was particularly difficult for them to enter readily into the rough and tumble play, the practical jokes, and the fun which all the other children seemed to enjoy and to take as a matter of course. Their high school days were very unpleasant, although they both did well in their studies. The boy went on to college but changed his college three times before he finally adjusted himself. Al-

though the reasons he gave were poor instruction, failure to be appreciated, or too severe discipline, the actual reason was his difficulty in adjusting himself socially.

*Discussion:*

1. Define *formal education* in terms of educational sociology.

2. Why are formal educational agencies necessary to a progressive civilization?

3. List the disadvantages of informal education as preparation for life. What similar social disadvantages accrue from education in private schools?

4. Defend or attack this mother's objections to public school education, basing your arguments on the social point of view.

5. Show the extent to which the theory of social participation succeeded or failed to operate in the case of Samuel Jr.

6. Go to such literature as Rugg's *The Child-Centered School, Progressive Education Magazine,* the writings of John Dewey, Angelo Patri, and similar writers to discover to what extent these progressive educators are in agreement or in conflict with the sociological principles underlying the need for formal education. Report on at least one of these writers.

*Sources:*

1. Anonymous, " In the Sacred Name of Education," *Progressive Education,* 10:321–325, October, 1933.

2. Betts, Chapter 11.

3. Finney, Chapter 8.

4. Kinneman, Chapters 6, 36.

5. Kulp, Chapters 1, 2.

6. Peters, pp. 39–52.

7. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 6.

8. Tuttle, Chapter 22.

## EXTENSION OF FORMAL EDUCATION BEYOND
## THE COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE

PROBLEM. *What is the social significance of provision for pre-school and adult education?*

*Case:*

In a magazine of national reputation, a university professor took issue with the schools of education in our universities for offering professional courses in pre-school and adult education. He felt that the offering of such courses is merely an attempt to create positions for the surplus of teachers.

In contrast to this view an examination of educational literature indicates a rapid development of formal educational facilities beyond the public schools. This is especially true in the fields of pre-school and adult education. Adult education may be justified by the following percentages released by Perry W. Reeves, Member of the Federal Board for Vocational Education: 17 per cent of the children entering the fifth grade never go beyond that grade; only 71 per cent enter the seventh grade; 63 per cent enter the eighth grade; 34 per cent enter the high school and only 14 per cent graduate; 7 per cent enter college and only 2 per cent graduate. These figures are used as the bases for existence by the correspondence schools of the country, with the result that some correspondence schools are offering as high as sixty-three different group courses ranging from accountancy and advertising to vegetable growing and woolen manu-

facturing, catering to the adult who stopped his schooling early.

The need for adult education is not only being met by private agencies for profit but also by individuals interested in current social problems, without thought of financial gain. At Grant, Michigan, an " adventure in self education " has been organized. Five weeks are given over to a discussion of such problems as: " What Can We Do About the Present Crisis? " " Education," " Art and Morals," " Rural Life and Religion." One topic is used as the basis for a week's discussion. Lectures are offered on the topics by college professors, ministers, business men and women, farmers, and others. The lecturers give their services. Many group discussions are arranged. Increasing adult attendance has proved its success.

At the other extreme of the educational ladder — the preschool — interest is evidenced by the organization of child study clubs by mothers and the offering of expert child consultation service by business houses. In some cities pre-school units are being organized independently of the public school. The preschool movement has been private rather than public.

*Discussion:*

1. What evidence can you find to indicate that adult and preschool education is merely an attempt to create jobs? Is there a vital need for either? What makes you think as you do?

2. How effective do you think correspondence courses are in extending formal education? What are your reasons?

3. Consult the catalogue of at least one correspondence school and evaluate the work offered from the standpoint of its social significance.

4. What principles of educational sociology are recognized by the Grant experiment? Would group discussions of this nature be of help in overcoming the " culture-lag "?

5. What evidence can you find to indicate the educational and social soundness of pre-school education? How can it be justified at public expense?

6. What principles of educational sociology are involved in a justification or rejection of adult and pre-school education?

*Sources:*

1. *Adult Education, Journal of,* The American Association for Adult Education, New York.

2. Davis, Mary D., *Nursery Schools, Their Development and Current Practices in the United States,* United States Department of Education, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932, No. 9.

3. *Educational Sociology, Journal of,* Vol. V, No. 8, April, 1932. Entire issue on " Adult Education."

4. Jacobsen, Vinar W., " Educational Opportunities Provided for Post-Graduate Students in High School," *Contributions to Education,* No. 523, Columbia University Press, New York, 1933.

5. Judd, Chapter 7.

6. Judd, Charles H., " Why Adult Education? " *School and Society,* 32:743–750, December 6, 1930.

7. Kinneman, Chapter 8, pp. 84–85.

8. Kotinsky, Ruth, *Adult Education and the Social Science,* D. Appleton Company, New York, 1933.

9. Murphy, J. Prentice, " America on the March," *Survey-Graphic,* 22:147–150, 180–185.

10. Peters, pp. 180–188.

11. Thorndike, E. L., and Others, *Adult Learning,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.

12. White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *Nursery Education,* The Century Company, New York, 1931.

## OUR SUBMERGED TWENTIETH

PROBLEM. *The sociological necessity of extending educational opportunities to adult illiterates so as to insure greater self-realization and better satisfaction of their social and biological needs.*

*Case:*

It is estimated that at least 5 per cent of our population in the United States is illiterate and ignorant. Although there is apparently no concerted state action to wipe out this illiteracy, there are many private efforts in this direction. Mrs. Stewart's " moonlight schools," which are spreading through certain of the mountain regions in the South, is one example. In these classes she may have people ranging in age from eighteen to eighty, and ranging in education from total illiteracy to a moderate degree of " l'arnin'." To watch some of her adult pupils grappling for the first time with the serious problem of writing out letter by letter their own names, to see the new light of accomplishment in the eyes of a middle-aged woman as for the first time she can spell out words on a printed page, is to experience something of the thrill that these workers among the mountain folks feel as this drama is played before their eyes. Through the medium of such schools thousands of illiterate adults have been set upon the road to literacy and greater usefulness.

*Discussion:*

1. Upon what basis is society justified in helping the individual to attain his greatest possible self-realization?

2. In what ways does social participation help the individual to find his greatest satisfactions in life? Justify " balanced participation " as an educational objective.

3. Why is it that many individuals fail to find the full satisfaction of their needs through social participation? How can education remedy this?

4. So long as illiterates are reasonably content with their lot in life, should we arouse possibilities of discontent by giving them a broader education? Justify your opinion upon sociological grounds.

5. Explain the rise of the " moonlight schools " on the basis of the principle of social parallelism. Should this form of education be encouraged? Why?

6. Summarize the principles of educational sociology that you have used in your answers to the above questions.

*Sources:*

1. Betts, pp. 133–135.

2. Bogardus, Chapter 3, sections 9, 11, 12, 13, 14.

3. Finney, Chapters 4, 5.

4. *National Survey of Secondary Education,* " Part-Time Secondary Education," Monograph No. 3, 1933.

5. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 2.

6. Peters, pp. 25–37.

## EDUCATION FOR NEW NEEDS

PROBLEM. *To what extent are the public schools responsible for offering continuation education in new fields of vocational specialization?*

*Case:*

In a city of about 170,000, members of the plumbers' union were becoming considerably concerned over recent changes in methods of pipe fitting. Instead of the methods they had learned as apprentices, there was an increasing demand that all plumbing jobs be done by welding pipes together. A new vocational school had been completed in the city and some of the plumbers conceived the idea of asking that a class be given to teach them pipe-welding. They appointed a committee to take up the question with the superintendent of schools. It was arranged that a class in pipe-welding should be provided for them on Saturday mornings, when they would not be working, and the instruction would be provided free, although they would have to pay for the materials used.

The above contribution of the public school to new educational needs of citizens in the community is the exception rather than the rule. However, the existence of such needs is well shown by the way in which correspondence schools have prospered while meeting this very type of demand for post-school education of adults. Although correspondence school students have to pay for the instruction received, yet in 1932, approximately 4,000,000 students were enrolled in tens of thousands of

different courses. The Manual of Home Study Courses for just one of these schools lists over 300 different courses comprising more than 1300 different subjects. This gives a little idea of the demand for further study by people who have left school and wish either to supplement previous schooling or to get training in a new or specialized line of work.

*Discussion:*

1. Is it sociologically justifiable to leave the supplementation of adult educational needs to correspondence schools and similar private agencies? Give full arguments for the position you take.

2. Show specifically how this instance illustrates increased educational demands of the " new supercivilization " upon its public schools. Cite any similar instances that have come to your attention.

3. List as many types and examples as you can find of other " vestibule or up-grading " schools.

4. What arguments can you present for decreasing the amount of emphasis upon formal, academic education in our public schools and providing more opportunities for specialized, vocational education of which the worker can avail himself as he feels the need? Consider this from the point of view of the total needs of society.

5. Show how the movement in the schools for general vocational education meets or fails to meet the needs of our industrial civilization.

6. Summarize the principles of educational sociology which you have used in answering the above questions.

*Sources:*

1. Betts, pp. 95–104.

2. Briggs, Thomas H., " The Changing World and the Changing Curriculum," *Teachers College Record,* 35:33–55, October, 1933.

3. Carver, Arthur H., " What Schools Can Do for Workers in Industry," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 7:280–290, January, 1934.

4. Finney, Chapter 5.

5. Kinneman, Chapter 21.

6. *National Survey of Secondary Education,* "Part-Time Secondary Schools," Monograph No. 3, 1933.

7. Noffsinger, *Correspondence Schools, Lyceums, and Chautauquas,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926.

8. Peters, pp. 185–188; 200–202.

9. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, Chapter 6.

10. Snedden, Chapter 29.

SALVAGING HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

PROBLEM. *Can publicly supported education afford to provide " special classes " for the training of mental deficients?*

*Case:*

Various studies agree that approximately 20 per cent of the population is mentally handicapped to the extent of being unable to carry on the ordinary academic studies of the school with any degree of success. Although the majority of our public schools are too handicapped financially to make any special provision for such mental deficients despite the fact that the law requires their attendance at school, yet some of the larger school systems have provided special classes for these less fortunate children. The efficiency of such special classes in salvaging these for good citizenship is pointed out in a recent publication of the United States Department of Labor entitled *Employment of Mentally Deficient Boys and Girls.* It studied the cases of 949 boys and girls in seven widely distributed cities. All of these children were mentally deficient, mostly of the moron class, with intelligence quotients running between 50 and 70. Fifteen per cent of them had records of delinquency which had put them either on probation or committed them to institutions for defectives or delinquents.

Although this appeared to be a rather unpromising group, these children have been made largely self-supporting, self-respecting citizens. More than 90 per cent of them found employment after their special training, and their records of suc-

cess in employment did not vary greatly from the records of young people of unselected intelligence. In studies from the Children's Bureau in Boston, and from Milwaukee, these mental deficients were actually able to keep their first jobs on the average for a somewhat longer period of time than normal young people. This speaks particularly well for them as not more than 5 per cent of the total group had had any kind of help in getting placed after graduation from school. The group had been out of school from three to seven years when the study was made, and 61 per cent of them were still gainfully employed. The greatest decrease was among the girls, due to marriage. Fifty-eight per cent of the unmarried girls and 71 per cent of the boys had persisted in gainful employment. Only 3 per cent of the total group had been committed to any type of institution. The enormous gain to society in having its institutional population decreased so materially is convincing testimony as to the actual economy involved in providing special classes to hold and train these pupils while they are still of school age.

These boys and girls were employed largely at unskilled trades and their wages were low. In 1923 and 1924, the median cash wage for boys ranged from $19 a week in Cincinnati to $27 in Detroit, and 14 per cent of the boys were earning as high as $32 a week. The girls' wages ranged from $12.50 a week in Cincinnati to $16.50 a week in certain California cities. The workers were not always all satisfactory; 20 per cent of the girls and 22 per cent of the boys were reported as not doing satisfactory work. Still only 12 per cent of the boys and 10 per cent of the girls had been actually discharged for unsatisfactory work. At least these young people were contributing members of society and not burdens on the taxpayers. Also, they were more content and happy themselves than they would otherwise have been. Salvaging these handicapped both reduced public expense and increased economic contributions to society.

*Discussion:*

1. List arguments for and against providing special classes in the public schools for the mentally incompetent. What are the lower limits of intelligence beyond which such classes should not receive mental deficients?

2. Suggest ways and means for meeting the needs of the mentally incompetent in the smaller communities where the provision of special classes is considered to be unfeasible. What basic reorganizations of educational facilities would aid in this problem?

3. What sociological arguments are there for keeping these mental incompetents in the schools, although segregated in special class groups, rather than sending them to special institutions? Are there any sociological arguments on the other side?

4. Describe any cases that may have come to your notice of mental incompetents thus salvaged for society. Visit and report upon any experiments of this type that may be under way in your vicinity. Evaluate their outcomes as best you can.

5. Get what data you can to compare the relative success of mentally deficient boys and girls trained in public schools and those trained in institutions. (See Channing's report.) How do you account for the differences that appear?

6. What are the principles of educational sociology that would justify greater expenditure of public funds for suitable training of mental deficients, considered from the points of view of psychology, sociology, and economics?

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 5, sections 24, 25.

2. Brown, D. Sanger, "Training the High-grade Mental Defective for Community Life," *Mental Hygiene,* 16:440–445, July, 1932.

3. Channing, Alice, *Employment of Mentally Deficient Boys and Girls,* United States Government Printing Office, Washington,

D. C., United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, Publication No. 210, 1932.

4. *Educational Sociology, Journal of,* " Special Education," Vol. VI, No. 6, February, 1933. Entire issue on " Special Education."

5. Ellis, J. William, " Physically and Mentally Handicapped Children — A Program for Their Adjustment," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 5:368–374, February, 1932.

6. Finney, Chapters 8, 21.

7. Good, pp. 525, 529.

8. Kulp, Chapter 19.

9. Peters, pp. 203–204.

10. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. II, pp. 754–769.

11. United States Office of Education, " An Annotated Bibliography on the Education and Psychology of Exceptional Children," Pamphlet No. 23, 1931.

12. United States Office of Education, " An Annotated Bibliography on the Education of Exceptional Children " (Supplement to Pamphlet No. 23, 1931), Circular No. 120, September, 1933, Parts I to VI inclusive. (Mimeographed)

## THE REHABILITATION OF THE PHYSICALLY
## HANDICAPPED THROUGH THE SCHOOL

PROBLEM. *Is the school justified in its program of administering to the physically handicapped children?*

*Case:*

In one of our Middle Western states, the educational program in the public schools for the rehabilitation of the physically handicapped alone cost for a year approximately 70,000 dollars. This was paid half by the state and half by the federal government. This aided the rehabilitation of over 2000 cases during the year, over 300 of whom were trained to some occupation for which they were fitted despite their handicaps. Thus they were placed in money-earning positions. Their average weekly salary before they were handicapped was $18.12 per week; their average weekly salary after being physically incapacitated was $2.28 per week; their average weekly salary after completing their rehabilitation training was $25.39 per week, or more than they had been able to earn even before they had become physically handicapped. Their total earnings at their beginning wages for the first year were about 413,000 dollars or 6.4 times the total cost of the state's entire rehabilitation program. They were employed in over a hundred different occupations.

Influenced by such investigations, a city of 10,000 people, located in one of the Middle-Western states, is planning on the erection of a Vocational Education Building separate from its

high school plan. The school is to be administered by a trained expert in the field of vocational education. The purpose of the school is to train the physically handicapped so they may be able to earn a living after leaving school. There is some opposition to the project, for it is claimed by some of the citizens that: the maintenance of such a school is too expensive for a town of 10,000 people; the number of students attending does not justify such a school; and, training can be given handicapped children in the regular school program without the erection of a new school plant.

While the earnings of these rehabilitated citizens did not go directly into the coffers of the state, either to reduce taxes or increase public financial resources, a broader view of the problem should be taken. When these persons became self-supporting, they ceased to be a charge upon either public or private funds. Thus, public and private money was accordingly released for such purposes as decreased tax burdens and higher standards of living. Such release contributes both to greater prosperity and greater happiness. Once the expenditures for rehabilitation have been made, greater ultimate prosperity and contentment of the social group, as a whole and as individual members, will be forthcoming.

*Discussion:*

1. Justify from a sociological point of view the school's program for rehabilitating the physically incapacitated. Why is not more of this type of education undertaken?

2. Show specifically how the schools in the state mentioned above have been an important factor in helping these physically incapacitated to attain the sociological objectives of social solidarity and individual efficiency.

3. Show in detail which of Peters' standards for the " optimum citizen " these physically incapacitated could probably

never have attained except for the rehabilitation services rendered them by the schools.

4. Report on two articles in current numbers of educational or sociological magazines illustrating how society is caring for its handicapped children.

5. List the principles of educational sociology underlying the movement for better education of the handicapped child, and evaluate in terms of these principles the project described in the articles upon which you reported.

6. How extensive a program can and should a school system develop for the physically handicapped. Outline the points to be considered before such a program is undertaken.

*Sources:*
1. Bogardus, Chapter 5, sections 24, 25.
2. Good, pp. 525–529.
3. Peters, pp. 22–26, 203–204; Chapter 6.
4. Smith, *Introduction,* pp. 240–241.
5. United States Office of Education, "An Annotated Bibliography on the Education of Exceptional Children," Circular No. 120, Parts VI to IX inclusive. (Mimeographed)

# FORMAL AGENCIES THAT EDUCATE — VARIOUS SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

S OCIAL PROGRESS is enhanced or retarded as the individual develops knowledge and appreciation of the cultural heritage and is taught conformity to social behavior patterns. To intrust the education of the young entirely to unorganized and informal social institutions would be dangerous as many social patterns would not be learned. But, on the other hand, the school cannot assume total responsibility for giving all the formal types of educational training needed. Insofar as other social institutions do not adequately meet needs of formal education, it is the function of the school to meet these residual needs. As you discovered in solving the problems dealing with the school, society has charged various institutions with the responsibility of teaching social patterns. The family, industrial organizations, and the church have assumed or have had assigned to them a number of educational processes paralleling different social needs as they arose. Thus the individual, often unaware of the training he is receiving, is, nevertheless, being trained in definite social patterns.

With the rapid industrial development of our time, schools have found it impractical as well as impossible to prepare young people for every type of vocation. Industries, therefore, have found it necessary to supplement the school with training patterns that prepare the individual for definite situations which correlate with industry. The question, of course, arises as to a

division of educational responsibility between industry and the school. To what extent is the school responsible and to what degree is industry obligated to train for industrial situations?

The family has been recognized by sociologists as a primary group, directly molding the social idealism of the children. It is here that the child through association with the other members of the family learns the social conformities without direct instruction and without conscious effort. The direct educational function of the family is not always recognized, however. The direct instruction of the child in morals, in religious, social, economic, and political attitudes, is not always thought of in relation to the home. If one examines and tries to trace the sources of his beliefs and attitudes, he may be surprised to discover the importance of the family group in the formation of these beliefs and attitudes. The home has a formal, as well as an informal educational function.

The majority of children go to Sunday school; a large number are taught religious doctrines, beliefs, and attitudes by Sunday school teachers, sisters, priests, or ministers. It has been left to the sociologists to measure the effectiveness of the Sunday school and church as social institutions charged with educational responsibilities. In the days of our grandparents and parents, the work of the church and Sunday school was accepted without question. Because people went to church, no thought was given to the effectiveness of the church as a social institution. As social organization became more complex, as social contacts multiplied, as commercial recreations grew in number, the need for the church as a place for the exchange of ideas, and as a social center decreased. As church attendance dropped and interest waned, the causes of the decline were investigated. It was discovered that the church and Sunday school as social and educational institutions were forced to work under severe handicaps. It was found also that society expected the church

to inculcate definite ideals. How this can be done and to what extent the responsibility for such instruction rests with the church, the family, and the school respectively, are problems of educational sociology.

The individual participates in these institutions and develops phases of his personality. The social contributions of each of these institutions, the difficulties under which each operates, the possibilities of co-operation, and the interaction of the three, are dealt with in the problems in this section. After solving them you should have a clearer idea of these three institutions as social units.

## FORMAL INSTRUCTION IN THE HOME

PROBLEM. *What phases of formal education can best be given in the home?*

*Case:*

For many years there has been a popular feeling that the home is basic to social development and control. Sociologists have been much concerned with family and home disintegration, and have pointed to the rapid rise in the divorce rate as evidence of disintegration. One sociologist recently studied the effect of the broken home on the desire of children to live. The " wish I had never been born " was much more pronounced on the part of children living in broken homes than on the part of those living in unbroken homes. It is argued that the broken home is unable to instruct the child properly and build correct attitudes.

Moralists and religionists are concerned with the apparent breakdown of social morality. A college instructor some time ago asked a number of boys and girls to list the names of persons they considered as ideals and after whom they hoped to pattern their lives. He was shocked to find that these boys and girls gave little consideration to the great moral and religious leaders. They listed the gangsters and movie actors and actresses as their ideals. As a result the college instructor insists that the home must give formal instruction in religion and morals.

Teachers are saying that children are coming to the public schools without home instruction in social manners. The children do not know table etiquette; they do not know how to

meet people in a social way or what to do in ordinary social situations. Some public schools are now offering courses in social etiquette because the homes have failed to meet this need.

*Discussion:*

1. List the types of *formal* education the home can give.

2. How effective is the home in its instruction? Show by example ways in which the home is effective and ineffective in its instructional program. Why do homes differ in their effectiveness?

3. What effect do environmental conditions have on the effectiveness of home education? Cite instances.

4. Should the home undertake and encourage self-education on the part of its members, or should all formal instruction be left to the school? Illustrate and prove your answer.

5. Justify this problem by listing the principles of sociology involved.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 4, sections 16, 19.
2. Cooley, *Social Progress,* pp. 145-147.
3. Hart, Hornell, Chapter 18.
4. Kinneman, pp. 473-474.
5. Peters, pp. 284-294.
6. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, pp. 661-679.
7. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 127-129.
8. Tuttle, Chapter 15.

## SCHOOLS IN INDUSTRY

PROBLEM. *How can society's need for better trained citizens be made to harmonize with industry's need for better trained technicians?*

*Case:*

Industry has found it profitable to offer its employees opportunities for extending their educational growth in various ways. At present, hundreds of different industrial and business concerns are offering such opportunities, involving the education each year of tens of thousands of employees.

There are two different types of education offered in these industries, based on different philosophies of education. The type most prevalent in industry and business is purely technical education which makes the employees more efficient in their particular jobs. The work of an electrical company along this line will serve as an illustration, as its program is probably one of the most effective of this type. The " vestibule school," where training was given a prospective employee before he went to work, is being largely supplanted by various types of training on the job. This company's work attacks the task from different angles. Foremen or sub-foremen are trained to take inexperienced workmen directly on the job and personally supervise their work until they have reached the efficiency necessary for them to work independently. Supplementary to this is the evening school held from after work hours until about seven o'clock in the evening. From 15 to 20 per cent

of the employees are enrolled. Instruction is given in subject matter directly pertaining to the job in such courses as factory management, money management, telephone fundamentals, manual telephone practice, merchandising principles, testing equipment, production principles; courses in fundamental subject matter like mathematics and elementary mechanics, blueprint reading, mechanical drawing, fundamentals of electricity, radio code, photography, stenography, comptometry, and typing; and a very few general courses as English and public speaking. Most of the courses have direct bearing on the job, and the subject matter of practically all courses is couched in terms of the problems of the industry.

In contrast to this point of view is that of the superintendent of a certain large candy plant. Having come to the conclusion that the ordinary type of vestibule training for prospective employees in the techniques of dipping chocolates and packing candy boxes was ineffective, the superintendent proposed the discontinuance of this expensive experiment and began looking about for some other type of training that would be effective. Observing that many of the girls were taking continuation courses at the public schools, he hit upon the plan of enlarging their opportunities for this kind of educational advantage. He started with the unusual request that the public schools permit the girls to stay in school longer than the actual legal requirements. This was allowed, and it led to a year's experiment with the school, which provided a special class for these girls only. Next, co-operating with the school director of vocational guidance, a co-operative arrangement was made whereby twenty girls were allowed to work alternate weeks at the plant and spend the other alternate weeks in school taking regular school subjects. This was so successful and proved so popular that these girls were permitted to continue a second year in school upon this arrangement. The idea continued to expand until it

now extends through the four years of high school. Although the girls at first did not earn so much money, since they were paid only for their alternate weeks of work, the demand for this opportunity increased steadily. After their first year in this co-operative plan, girls were able to go from a wage basis to a piece-work basis, and without any particular technical training for their jobs, were able on the part-time work basis to earn as much in the course of a year as the regular full-time workers. The superintendent of the plant consistently insisted that the girls be given no job training whatever, as he wanted them to learn more perfectly their tool subjects, to learn appreciation of good literature, to learn music, to learn domestic arts, and the like. Thereby, he claimed, they came to be more efficient and more stable workers in the factory.

*Discussion:*

1. State concisely the conflict between the two theories of industrial education represented by these two different types of training for workers. Give arguments supporting each.

2. Would the plan of the candy factory work in some types of industry and not in others? Give your reasons.

3. Present as strong a case as you can for inducing the electrical company to provide broader cultural and citizenship education for its employees.

4. Ought the public schools to take over more responsibility for the technical training of prospective employees in industry? Would the resulting breadth of socialized and cultural training found in the public schools but lacking in vestibule schools in industry be worth the price society would have to pay for this specialized training? Why?

5. Outline a plan of co-operative endeavor between school and industry which would meet both society's need for better trained citizens among industrial employees and industry's need

for better trained technicians. How should the support for such a co-operative plan be provided?

6. How could skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled workers be given further " cultural and social " education without establishing in them a distaste for their own type of work and a false admiration for the " white-collared " job, which would prove entirely upsetting to the whole scheme of industrial organization?

7. Summarize the principles of educational sociology upon which you have based your conclusions regarding the above problems.

*Sources:*

1. Finney, pp. 242–243; Chapter 13.

2. Good, pp. 319–325.

3. Peffer, Nathaniel, *Educational Experiments in Industry,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1932.

4. Snedden, D. S., *American High Schools and Vocational Schools in 1960,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933.

## RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

PROBLEM. *What is the sociological significance of teaching religion?*

*Case:*

Seven states — Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Oregon, South Dakota, and West Virginia — permit religious instruction during school hours. The general plan is that at the stipulated time the members of each of the different communions will go to the place designated for their Week Day Bible School and there receive such instruction as their particular church wishes to give them. Frequently, the public school will give credit toward the child's graduation under certain conditions and when there is evidence that the work given is of real educational merit. This has grown largely out of the fact that religious instruction is not allowed in the public schools since it is impossible for the different religious sects to agree upon what should be taught, how it should be taught, or who should teach it. On the other hand, there are many public schools, especially in strongly religious communities, where a regular chapel exercise is held and required, anywhere from one to five times a week. Generally the religious activity is limited to a reading from the Bible and the repetition of the Lord's Prayer by all. Still other schools have regular courses in Bible study in their curriculum. organized, taught, and given credit for like other elective subjects.

*Discussion:*

1. Define " religious education." List any values in religious education of such innate worth that it would be a genuine loss to society if they were not perpetuated.

2. Are these values of such importance and worth to society that they ought not to be omitted from the training program of young people of whatever sectarian leanings, judged by the criteria of relative utility? Justify your answer.

3. Assuming that indispensable values can be found in religious education, what in general are the irreducible minima of values common to all sects that ought to be presented? According to your experience and observation, are these goals being adequately attained in this generation, whether through school, church, or home training?

4. Insofar as the indispensable minimum of religious training is not now being given our young people, should the public schools undertake to meet this deficiency? Why?

5. Since it is often considered illegal or unconstitutional to use public school facilities for sectarian instruction, how can the use of school time for the Week Day Bible School described above be justified? Should the school supervise Week Day Bible Schools? Should attendance be required by the public school? Should credit for this work be allowed toward graduation? Justify your answers.

6. What are the bases of educational sociology that argue for the need of religious instruction?

*Sources:*

1. Finney, Chapter 16.

2. Groves, pp. 192–193.

3. Good, pp. 102–104.

4. Hartshorne, Hugh, and Lotz, Elsa, *Case Studies in Present-Day Religious Education,* Yale University Press, New Haven, 1932.

5. Hartshorne, Hugh, and Miller, J. Quintner, *Community Or-*

*ganization in Religious Education,* Yale University Press, New Haven, 1932.

6. *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* "Educational Pioneering Yesterday and Today: A Church Surveys Its Secondary Schools," 7:209–213, December, 1932.

7. Kinneman, pp. 361–363.

8. Odegaard, Peter, pp. 248–252.

9. Park and Burgess, pp. 846–848.

10. Peters, pp. 300–312.

11. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, pp. 397–414.

12. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 223–228.

## THE CHURCH AS AN EDUCATIONAL
## INSTITUTION

PROBLEM. *How can the church organize so as to be an effective
educational and social agency?*

*Case:*

An originally large and flourishing church in an Ohio city
began to decline in membership and the interest its congrega-
tion took in the church. This was due partly to the change in the
community it served, partly to the fact that many of the mem-
bers transferred their membership elsewhere, and partly to the
declining years and ineffectual leadership of the pastor. The
church was upon the verge of being closed when a young man
was brought to it as the new pastor, and a final effort was made
to continue it. He began to bring the church before the public
through modern advertising methods. He reorganized the
church services, especially the evening services when, after a
fifteen-minute sermon, he held a forum for the discussion of
current social and religious problems. He reorganized the men's
Bible class and brought to it many prominent speakers who
were authorities in their fields. He kept himself intimately in-
formed on current problems by such means as donning overalls
and becoming one of the laborers during certain labor difficul-
ties; going to Mexico and visiting the President, to see conditions
at first hand when the difficulties between the Catholic Church
and the Government were at their height, etc. The Sunday
school was reorganized along modern pedagogical lines and

educationalists were brought in to handle the Sunday school classes. The whole project was supported through the loose collections taken at the church services.

*Discussion:*

1. Justify procedures such as that cited above in making the church an educational agency in society.

2. List the handicaps with which the average church has to deal in making itself an effective educational agency.

3. What are the relative contributions of the church and the school in meeting the needs of character education, and in what definite ways can they co-operate?

4. List as many legitimate educational functions of the church as you can and show how each should be achieved.

5. Can an individual be socially and educationally efficient without religious instruction? Substantiate your position.

6. Summarize the principles of educational sociology justifying the educational functions of the church which you listed in answer to question 4 above.

*Sources:*

1. Finney, pp. 309–315.
2. Good, Chapter 12.
3. Kinneman, Chapter 38.
4. Peters, pp. 302–313.
5. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. II, pp. 1053–1060.
6. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 220–228.

## INFORMAL AGENCIES THAT EDUCATE —
## PERSONAL AGENCIES

So far, we have followed the development of the individual as it has been directed by the formal agencies of society. We have seen that society feels that the establishing of formal educational institutions, and the designation of others less formal, is necessary to its continuity. We know, however, that the individual is not always under the control of the formal instruction of the school, the home, and the like, and that he spends a large part of his time in contact with persons and institutions which also influence his thinking and conduct. Often the patterns of behavior received from these informal sources are much more powerful than those received from the formal agencies.

One prominent sociologist thinks of the interplay of social patterns in terms of " social osmosis." By this he means that ideas and attitudes become a part of us, in much the same way as a soluble substance filters through a membrane and becomes a part of the receiving solution. The process is conditioned by another sociological principle, that of prestige. The receptivity of an individual is conditioned by his attitude toward the one imparting the idea or attitude. If he is favorably influenced by the social or economic standing of this person, by his age, learning, power, or some similar factor, he is much more receptive. The process of osmosis is forever going on, resulting in an interplay and an assimilation of social concepts.

This process may take place through any one of the three fol-

lowing methods: (1) imitation of the overt act, consciously or unconsciously, because of admiration for the one imparting the pattern; (2) sympathetic radiation or a copying of emotional attitudes and feelings; (3) mental suggestions or the copying of ideas and ways of thinking.

It is apparent that the individual in associating with groups of all kinds is not always influenced by just the good, but also by the bad. The change has often been called education. One sociologist thinks of the changes for bad as *de*-educative. Regardless of terminology the fact remains that individuals are changed for good or bad by association in certain informal groups, often unrecognized by all except the sociologist.

Within recent years we have come to recognize, to a certain extent, the influence such association groups as the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, recreational and play groups have upon the formation and development of the individual. An inventory of one's beliefs and attitudes reveals the social importance of such intermediate groups. The individual is the result of all the social forces playing upon him.

The problems in this section are designed to direct attention to the power of those associations with which the individual comes directly in contact. Some of these association groups have been consciously and definitely organized because of their possible social importance. The question naturally arises as to the value of such groups. Do they actually operate according to basic sociological principles? Do they achieve the social purposes claimed by such organizations? Are they really influential in the social development of the individual? Do they have educational value? What is the relationship of the school to these intermediate groups? The answers to these questions, and many more one might raise, are found in the solutions to the problems in this section.

## THE EDUCATIVE EFFECTS OF ASSOCIATION

PROBLEM. *To what extent are our attitudes, ideals, and habits molded by the people we meet?*

*Case:*

Keep a daily diary for a week or so of the contacts you have made with people who have exerted special influence upon you, and whose acquaintance has, you believe, modified your own ways of thinking and acting. Use some standard form for recording your experiences and reactions, such as the following:

### EXAMPLE I

*Experience.* Met Alice Wright, a new rushee. Although entirely courteous and in no way condescending, she didn't " fall " for our attentions like most girls. She said afterwards that she couldn't make up her mind whether or not the intimacies and social advantages of sorority membership outweighed the limitations it set upon one's friendships and the demands it made upon one's time and energies. There were girls in different sororities whom she had met and with whom she'd like to develop lasting friendships. Did she mean that there were also some in each sorority whom she didn't care to know so well?

*Reactions.* There's a girl who thinks for herself. She expressed some queries that came to me only after I had joined. Was I taken off my feet when the girls rushed me so handsomely? I've certainly lost at least two good pals who never made a sorority and whom I seldom see any more.

*Outcomes.* I'm going to think more for myself and not let others do my thinking for me. " Look twice before you leap " isn't such bad advice after all.

<div align="center">EXAMPLE 2</div>

*Experience.* Ikey gave me the dirtiest stiff arm in practice to-day I ever got. Almost dug his fingers in my eyes. He always was a mean devil. Anybody that gets in his way when he wants anything always gets a stiff arm, and a mean one. Now he's even with me for the hard tackle I gave him yesterday.

*Reactions.* That's why he's such a demon carrying the ball, I suppose. Still, his position is cinched and he knows I want to make the first string. He might have given me a little break instead of showing me up that way. He gets what he's after, but he's making plenty of enemies doing it. Wonder whether that's the best way after all, in football or business or anywhere.

*Outcomes.* I'm not so sure that a " go-getter " of that type always makes such a success of life. Sandy Schultz does well enough and makes friends too. I think Sandy has the right idea.

*Discussion:*

1. List the different experiences that seem positively to have influenced your thinking and action during this project. Has the sum total been mostly " good " or mostly " bad " ?

2. Describe an experience of yours where you are certain your influence upon someone else has more or less unconsciously changed his way of thinking or acting. How were you able to exert this influence upon him ?

3. Compare the influence in your own life of such personal contacts with the influence exerted at some time when you were " preached at." Can you point out some definite associational experience which had the desired effect where the direct appeal failed to influence you ? Why was this ?

4. Imagine a specific classroom situation. List as many experiences as you can which might be influencing the development of someone in that imaginary situation through group and personal contacts, but of which the teacher was probably entirely unconscious. Kilpatrick calls these " concomitant learnings."

5. Should the teacher make an effort so to set the stage and direct classroom activities that these concomitant learnings will be educative rather than *de*-educative? Justify your answer.

6. If the teacher should accept the direction of concomitant learnings as a part of his responsibility, how should he go about it to control them?

7. What are the principles of educational sociology that explain the power of the influences exerted merely through association?

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 6.
2. Finney, Chapter 3.
3. Hart, Hornell, Chapter 8.
4. Kilpatrick, William H., *Foundations of Method,* Chapters 8, 9, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1925.
5. Peters, Chapter 11.
6. Ross, E. A., *Principles of Sociology,* Chapter 9.
7. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 81–87.

## THE POWER OF INFLUENCE

PROBLEM. *The importance of the sociological principles of association and imitation in the educational process.*

*Case:*

   The boys of a certain mining town in the South were, to say the least, uncouth and rough. School meant for them only the opportunity to participate in athletics. Different coaches found the disciplinary handling of the high school boys too difficult a task. R.R. came there as coach from an Ohio mining community. In fact, R.R. himself had been born and brought up in a mining community, where his father had died in a mine catastrophe. R.R. was able through hard work to finish his high school and later college, whereupon he took up high school teaching and coaching. His understanding of the boys' problems soon won their co-operation. He was able to produce strong athletic teams although he ruled with an iron hand in matters of training and fair play. He not only won the boys' respect, but they began to idolize him for other qualities. Though he never " preached " to the boys, his own clean life and abstinence from every kind of indulgence gradually led these boys to realize the folly of breaking training even after the season had ended, and many of the boys voluntarily gave up smoking and drinking. His attitude towards the girls and especially his fondness and loving care of his aging mother, who lived with him, gave to his boys entirely new ideas about women. Within his first year at this school, problems of girl and boy relationships began to de-

crease noticeably, and the principal could find no other likely cause for it but the silent influence of R.R.'s example. Moreover, many of the boys sought to emulate R.R. and also become coaches, or at least go on through school and make something more of themselves. Though they could not recall anything that he had ever said to them directly about these matters, they all agreed with Tom, the basketball captain, who said upon one occasion, " R.R.'s a real man. He's done me more good than all the churches in town."

*Discussion:*

1. List a number of what you consider to be the most important non-school, informal educative agencies and show how they operate in the total educational process of a child.

2. Show from a sociological point of view the fallacy of the contention that a teacher's duty is done when he has enabled his pupils to master the particular subject matter he is teaching them.

3. Show how R.R.'s influence was augmented by the influence of the group upon its individual members. Discuss the importance of this principle for education in a democracy.

4. Explain from a sociological point of view why R.R. succeeded where previous coaches had failed in handling these boys.

5. Show how R.R.'s personality might easily have been a " *de-educative* " force.

6. Show what is meant by the development of social personality through " passive mentation." What are the sociological principles involved?

*Sources:*

1. Finney, pp. 60–63.
2. Fox, John F., " Leisure-Time Social Backgrounds in a Subur-

ban Community," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 7:493–503, April, 1934.

3. Peters, pp. 253–261.

4. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 3.

5. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 5.

6. Thrasher, Frederick M., "Social Backgrounds and Informal Education," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 7:470–484, April, 1934.

7. Tuttle, Chapter 12.

## SOCIAL GROUPS AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS

PROBLEM. *Does education receive any direct or indirect stimulation and help from the group organizations of society, or are the apparent contributions ill-directed and superficial?*

*Cases:*
During the early eighties when the struggle in the United States to establish a universal system of free, tax-supported public schools was so intense, one of the most potent factors in organizing public opinion in favor of the support of public schools was the work of various organizations of working men in the larger cities such as Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, and elsewhere. Through the newspapers, meetings, resolutions drawn up and presented to the officials, and many other means these groups agitated effectively.

Ever since 1890 the American Association of University Women has been carrying out on an almost nation-wide scale a program of child study, reporting upon child behavior as observed and noted in home situations. Although this is but one branch of the Association's activities, it has become a very influential line of endeavor.

In 1897 a group of interested people met in Washington to organize the "National Congress of Mothers." According to their official organ,

The organizers, both men and women, were persons representing the philanthropic, religious, social, and political interests of the

nation, who realized that while mothers have ever been leading factors in determining the character of young children, they have failed, through lack of guidance and co-operation, to exert the influence upon the race which might be possible were conditions beyond the home brought under at least partial control. It was the original aim of the Congress of Mothers to secure this control and to carry mother-love and mother-thought into all that concerns or touches childhood in home, school, church, or state.

The activities of this group soon became so involved with those of the teachers in the school that its name was changed to " The National Congress of Parents and Teachers." Its present paid-up membership approximates 1,500,000 and the ramifications of its activities, national, state, and local, are vast in extent and far-reaching in importance.

At a recent meeting of one of four luncheon clubs in a city of 20,000 population, there appeared on the agenda for business the following matters: support of a blind girl being taught to use a dog to guide her about town; furnishing free to school children of the city paper bookcovers with rules and admonitions regarding safety and accident prevention; further support of a Boy Scout patrol for poor boys; support of the city project for an adequate unit of health work in the public schools, to which opposition had arisen.

*Discussion:*

1. Distinguish between primary and intermediate (or secondary) social groups. Make a list of the more important intermediate groups.

2. Cite and explain the educational values of intermediate groups to the members within the group.

3. What are some of the important sociological influences of the labor unions? How have they affected educational development?

4. Point out the important sociological significance of women's clubs. What is their educational significance?

5. Summarize the sociological significance and educational contribution of intermediate groups.

*Sources:*
1. Cooley, *Social Organization,* Chapters 21, 25.
2. Hansome, Marius, *World Workers' Educational Movements,* Part III, Columbia University Press, New York, 1933.
3. Kulp, Chapters 15, 16.
4. Peters, pp. 333-335.
5. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, pp. 431-435; Vol. II, pp. 831-852.
6. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 7.
7. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 10.

# THE INFLUENCE OF CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES ON BELIEFS AND ATTITUDES

**PROBLEM.** *How does the home through its informal teaching modify, mold, and influence the beliefs of its members?*

*Case:*
  A self-inventory check list of beliefs and attitudes is given below. It is difficult, of course, to analyze and discover the sources of one's beliefs, but it is worth while to trace the social process, as far as possible, by this method. Try to recall the sources for your beliefs and attitudes and check each item with an X in the appropriate column.

A SELF-INVENTORY CHECK LIST OF BELIEFS AND ATTITUDES

| | Source | | Effect | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Item* | *Home* | *Associates* | *Merely heard* | *Believed it* | *Influenced me appreciably* |
| 1. Milk and fish when served together are poisonous. | | | | | |
| 2. Children may be marked before birth. | | | | | |
| 3. Babies are brought by the stork. | | | | | |
| 4. Babies are brought by the doctor. | | | | | |

| Item | Source | | Effect | | |
|------|--------|--|--------|--|--|
| | Home | Associates | Merely heard | Believed it | Influenced me appreciably |
| 5. Bathing in public streams during " dog-days " is injurious. | | | | | |
| 6. A thumb-sucking baby is a good baby. | | | | | |
| 7. Bright children die young. | | | | | |
| 8. Fire may be blown from burns. | | | | | |
| 9. Sore throat may be cured by tying the left stocking around the throat. | | | | | |
| 10. Children inherit acquired traits. | | | | | |
| 11. Politicians are generally dishonest. | | | | | |
| 12. Graft in public office is to be accepted. | | | | | |
| 13. Men want office for personal gain. | | | | | |
| 14. Democracy is the best form of government. | | | | | |
| 15. My country, right or wrong — my country. | | | | | |
| 16. America for the Americans. | | | | | |
| 17. Beat the government if you can. | | | | | |
| 18. Taxes are always unjust. | | | | | |

| Item | Source | | Effect | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Home* | *Associates* | *Merely heard* | *Believed it* | *Influenced me appreciably* |
| 19. Law is for the other fellow. | | | | | |
| 20. America won the war. | | | | | |
| 21. Thirteen people should not sit at the same table. | | | | | |
| 22. Dropping the knife or fork at the table will bring bad luck. | | | | | |
| 23. The church to which you belong is the right church. | | | | | |
| 24. Swearing will cause tongue decay. | | | | | |
| 25. White spots on the finger nails indicate lying. | | | | | |
| 26. God punishes people by placing a curse on them. | | | | | |
| 27. God keeps a big book in heaven and enters our good and bad deeds in it. | | | | | |
| 28. The streets of heaven are made of gold. | | | | | |
| 29. Natural catastrophes are the result of people's sins. | | | | | |
| 30. Disease is the result of sin. | | | | | |
| 31. Our seasons are changing. | | | | | |

| Item | Source | | Effect | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Home | Associates | Merely heard | Believed it | Influenced me appreciably |
| 32. If squirrels collect a large supply of nuts a severe winter is coming. | | | | | |
| 33. Heavy walls on muskrats' homes indicate a severe winter. | | | | | |
| 34. You can judge character by appearance. | | | | | |
| 35. Intelligence can be determined by appearance. | | | | | |
| 36. Early southern migration of birds indicates an early winter. | | | | | |
| 37. If the ground hog sees his shadow on groundhog day there will be six more weeks of winter. | | | | | |
| 38. Our lives are controlled by the stars. | | | | | |
| 39. Character can be seen by an analysis of handwriting. | | | | | |
| 40. Turnips are to be planted in the correct sign of the moon. | | | | | |
| 41. Babies are born with a conscience. | | | | | |
| 42. Certain men are made for certain women. | | | | | |

| Item | Source | | Effect | | |
|------|--------|------------|----------------|-------------|--------------------------|
| | Home | Associates | Merely heard | Believed it | Influenced me appreciably |
| 43. Fish is a good brain food. | | | | | |
| 44. Night air is injurious. | | | | | |
| 45. Sitting in a draft causes cold. | | | | | |
| 46. Love at first sight. | | | | | |
| 47. Children innately love their parents. | | | | | |
| 48. Spirits walk on Halloween. | | | | | |
| 49. Graveyards are haunted. | | | | | |
| 50. The majority is generally right. | | | | | |

*Discussion:*

1. Collect all the superstitions you can from your friends. Try to get them to indicate the sources.

2. After checking the above list evaluate the influence of your home on your stock of beliefs and attitudes.

3. Describe some experience which you had or heard about which illustrates the influence of misguided beliefs and attitudes on social action.

4. What influence does environment have on beliefs and attitudes? Illustrate and prove your point.

5. What should the school contribute to the formulation of new beliefs and attitudes to supplant superstitions current in the popular mind?

6. List all the principles of educational sociology obtained from the readings which bear on this assignment.

*Sources:*

1. Berger, Clarence Q., " The Persistence of Obsolete Usages," *Sociology and Social Research,* 18:258–264, January–February, 1934.

2. Bogardus, Chapter 4, sections 16, 19.

3. Conklin, E. S., " Superstition, Practice, and Belief Among College Students," *American Journal of Psychology,* Volume 30, 1919.

4. Dresslar, Fletcher B., *Superstition and Education,* Berkely, California: University Press, 1907.

5. Finney, Chapter 7.

6. Hill, G. G., and Hutson, P. W., " The Home as a Teacher-Training Agency," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 4:450–458, March, 1931.

7. Kinneman, Chapter 24.

8. Kulp, pp. 161–170.

9. Lundeen, Gerhard E., and Caldwell, Otis, " A Study of Unfounded Beliefs Among High School Seniors," *Journal of Educational Research,* 22:257–273, November, 1930.

10. Nixon, H. K., " Popular Answers to Some Psychological Questions," *American Journal of Psychology,* Volume 36, 1925.

11. Park and Burgess, pp. 439–443.

12. Waller, Chapter 19.

## RECREATIONAL AGENCIES AS MOLDERS OF PERSONALITY

PROBLEM. *What influence do small recreational groups like the Boy Scouts have on the formation of personality?*

*Case:*

Harry was a troublesome child. When he first entered school he cried easily. He was ashamed of this weakness and tried to control it but failed. Being the only child he was the constant concern of his mother, who insisted on dressing him in infant clothes until after he started to school. He was fourteen years old but his mother still insisted on keeping him at home. She encouraged him in reading and was partially successful in developing intellectual interests. During his childhood he was permitted to associate with a limited number of boys of his own age. The mother has felt that her boy is better than the average run of boys.

Both his father and mother have been concerned about his health and carefully guarded him against exposure and disease. He was told by both parents that he was not strong and was warned against participation in boys' sports.

His progress in school was excellent in the academic subjects but poor in the manual subjects. He was subject to temper " spells " which often made his presence distasteful to teacher and students. The teacher reports that he was antisocial, that he took delight in annoying her and the pupils, especially the girls. His mother reported that he was disagreeable at home and was

often discourteous. Neither mother nor father could control him.

While a member of the fifth grade he, with some younger boys, organized a gang. The purpose of the organization was to make life miserable for the girls and eventually drive them out of school.

The visiting teacher was finally called for consultation. After reviewing the case and checking Harry's condition by means of physical and mental examination, she concluded that he was deficient in social and recreational experience. He had been denied the right of normal group associations. The visiting teacher interested a young man — James Clark — in Harry. After a period of preparation Harry joined a troop of Boy Scouts of which James Clark was scout master. The experience was new for Harry. At first he did not enjoy the hikes and confessed that after the boys teased him he cried. The food served at camp was distasteful and the lack of conveniences annoyed him. After a time the other boys discovered that Harry knew more about bird life than any other member of the troop. This fact gave Harry the opportunity for leadership. Gradually he came to be accepted by the group and he in turn accepted the group. After a year of such associations he has developed into a normal boy and is no longer classed as troublesome by teachers and parents. He has been made to realize, through the code of the Scouts, that chivalry toward ladies and girls is a mark of good breeding. He no longer feels that girls are " no good." His outlook on life has changed and he now is a happy, normal boy.

*Discussion:*

1. Do you know of children considered " peculiar," who are really deficient in social experiences? Describe the cases.

2. How important are the informal recreational groups in the education of boys and girls? Cite specific instances.

3. What do such informal educational agencies as the Boy Scouts teach? Cite any instances of which you may know where Boy or Girl Scout groups or similar groups have proven *de*-educative. Why was this so? Are such organizations *inherently* educative or *de*-educative? Explain your answer.

4. What specific things did you learn because of association with informal educational groups?

5. What basic principles of educational sociology must be recognized by the teacher in encouraging children to form informal groups?

6. What basic principles of educational sociology are involved in this problem?

*Sources:*

1. Hart, Hornell, Chapter 8.

2. Hartshorne, Hugh, and May, Mark A., *Studies in Deceit,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.

3. Peters, pp. 329–331.

4. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, pp. 696–702.

5. Smith, *Introduction,* p. 101.

6. Waller, Chapter 13.

## THE BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA

PROBLEM. *What is the social and the educational significance of the Boy Scout movement?*

*Case:*
" On my honor I will do my best
  To do my duty to God and my country,
  And to obey the Scout Law;
  To help others at all times,
  To keep myself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight."
Approximately 1,000,000 Scouts and Scout officials are pledged to the above oath. According to the constitution, the purpose of this organization is to " promote, through organization and cooperation with other agencies, the abilities of boys to do things for themselves; to train them in Scout craft and teach them patriotism, courage, self-reliance, and kindred virtues, using methods which are now in common use by Boy Scouts, placing emphasis upon the Scout Oath and Law for character development, citizenship training, and physical fitness."

In commenting upon the Boy Scout movement in his book *Education for Democracy,* Kilpatrick says that in his opinion there is no organization superior to the Scouts among all our social " institutions making for education of adolescents for democracy." He feels this is true because of their seriousness of purpose, the all-around development that they give, their vision which includes the whole of America and which recognizes no division line of creed, color, or social status.

*Discussion:*

1. List and explain the chief characteristics of " recreational groups." Name the more common recreational groups in our society. Do the Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls fit into this classification? Why?

2. Show how the Boy Scout and Girl Scout movements make use of the sociological and psychological principle of the gang spirit.

3. Show how group stimulation aids the individual worker in his task. What are the educational implications of this fact?

4. Name some of the educational features of the Boy Scout movement. Evaluate them from a sociological standpoint. Can the organization be justified in setting up these objectives? On what basis?

5. To what extent should the Scout movement be incorporated into the school? How can the activities of the two best be correlated?

6. What are the most important principles of educational sociology involved in the above discussion of the Boy Scout movement?

*Sources:*

1. Almack, John C., *Education for Citizenship,* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1924.

2. Bogardus, Chapter 4, sections 16, 17, 18; Chapter 5.

3. Davis, Jerome, " Effects of Occupational and Racial Backgrounds on the Boy Scouts of Connecticut," *Sociology and Social Research,* 18:43–51, September–October, 1933.

4. Good, Chapter 7.

5. Hartshorne, Hugh, and May, Mark A., *Studies in Deceit,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928.

6. Peters, pp. 259–262; 330–331.

7. Smith, *Introduction,* pp. 93–94; 101–102.

## EDUCATION THROUGH PLAY

PROBLEM. *What are the educational values of socialized play?*

*Case:*

W. W. Pangborn has shown what a tremendous expansion there has been in the public facilities provided for socialized play and recreations. He says in part:

Forty years have produced many sharp contrasts in this movement. Parks have been utilized generously for municipal golf, tennis, boating, picnicking, pageantry, athletics, and playground activities. They used to be thick with "keep-off-the-grass" signs with passive recreation and rest as their functions. Forty years ago playground activities were at best exclusively physical. Today a progressive program includes dramatics in all its forms, such as story telling, circuses, plays, pageantry, puppetry, and festivals; music in many forms; handicrafts, drawing, and painting; water sports; winter sports; social recreation and other activities; and nature study. The attempt now is to contribute to every phase of development.

At the outset public recreation was strictly a children's playground movement. Today the patrons of public recreation are almost if not fully 50 per cent adult. Equipment then was confined to play apparatus and materials. Today one observes wading pools, swimming pools, tennis courts, golf courses, gymnasiums, athletic fields, and evening recreation centers. . . .

Some educators are saying that play activities of children should be entirely administered by the schools, and there are examples of schools that do so. For instance, Milwaukee and Gary, Indiana, Cleveland, Chicago, New York, Boston, St. Louis, and other cities. If the new committee of the National Education Association on the enrichment of adult

life is an indication, schools at large will quite generally be doing what a few are now doing — providing rich recreational programs for adults, and the time will come when school buildings, instead of standing idle a great part of the time, will hum with adult activities in the evening, just as they do now by day with the activities of children.

*Discussion:*

1. Discuss the four theories explaining why children play. Show the significance of each for the educational process.

2. Show sociologically and educationally why it is of prime importance to provide proper play opportunities for children.

3. Describe fully the sociological and educational values of the playground and the playground movement.

4. Explain in some detail the value of play in the development of individual efficiency as contrasted with social efficiency.

5. Why is it important to develop wholesome play skills in the adult?

6. Summarize the sociological arguments showing the educational importance of play.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 6.

2. Pangborn, W. W., "Public Recreation in 1891 and 1931," *American School Board Journal,* March, 1931.

3. Peters, pp. 27, 178–179.

4. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. III, Chapter 18.

5. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 5.

6. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 8.

7. Tuttle, Chapters 16, 30.

## INFORMAL AGENCIES THAT EDUCATE —
## IMPERSONAL AGENCIES

O F what social significance are the movie, the theater, the newspaper, the radio, travel? Here they are — these agencies organized as commercial enterprises for the convenience, recreation, entertainment, and intellectual stimulation of the people. The average person accepts them and is not troubled with questions as to their social significance. The majority of the organizers and operators of these agencies are equally unconcerned as to the social ends. The sociologist must be concerned, however, for he sees in them means of communication, possible sources of contagion, molders of public opinion. The educator cannot ignore them for they are powerful agencies in supplying social backgrounds and ideas which he must either reject or accept.

In what ways do these agencies influence children? Imagination and suggestion are basic to conduct. Each child coming in contact with the movie, the newspaper, the theater, the radio, is furnished with imaginative materials, and definite patterns of behavior are suggested. One reads about new experiences and in turn is stimulated to desire the same experiences. The power of suggestion is potent in motivating behavior especially when associated with the elements of prestige and vivid portrayal. Recent studies reveal the power of the movie and the theater. Political history reveals the power of the press. Cooley refers to the newspapers as organized world gossip.

But the sociologist wishes to know to what extent our social ideals and attitudes are modified and changed by these agencies. The real scientist is not interested in generalizations except as means to an end. He is concerned with facts. It has been charged that group attitudes and ideals are often acquired from the movie, the theater, the press, or similar informal agencies. An illustration is the popularization of the expression, " Come up and see me some time," by a well-known actress. Almost over-night it becomes a popular greeting. A night club hostess greets her patrons with, " Hello, sucker." The radio and the press broadcast it and the crowd soon accepts it as its own. The vocabularies of our children now contain words coined for the convenience of the gangster, the movie star, or the radio crooner. Do these agencies change more than our language? Do they influence the fundamental foundations of social stability?

What are the educational values accruing from these agencies? As previously pointed out, change may not always be progress; it may not always be education, it may be *de*-education. Can these social forces be made to educate? Can the school utilize them in its program? What principles of sociology must be considered if we are to analyze properly their social importance and significance?

Before one can answer any of these questions it is necessary that he first understand the sociological principles and educational values of communication, psychological contagion, laws of imitation, the sociological bases for attitude formation, the social process, social change, passive mentation, active mentation, control of the press, the sociology of interest and control, and many others.

After the sociology of these agencies is understood, there still remains the problem of what to do about it. The moving picture was offered to the educators but was rejected. Now commercial interests have taken it over. The movie audience is made

up predominately of children. They are going and will continue to go. The child reads the paper, which like the movie is organized for adults. He even looks at the advertisements. The daily paper is perhaps the most widely used textbook. What is the school going to do about the movie, the theater, and the newspaper? And then we have the radio. One cannot escape it. The child does not try to escape it. Much of the material is excellent; some of it is of little value; some of it is positively *de-*educative. What is the school going to do about it?

As a student of educational sociology you must have an opinion and that opinion should be based on scientific information. The problems in this section introduce you to the sociology of these agencies as factors in the educative and socializing processes. After solving these problems you will have: (1) a definite conception of the social importance of the movie, the theater, the newspaper, the radio, and similar informal agencies; (2) a knowledge of the sociology underlying them; (3) the sociology which must be recognized in changing them; and (4) their educational significance and importance.

# THE MOVING PICTURE AS AN EDUCATIONAL FORCE

PROBLEM. *What are the social and educational effects upon children of moving pictures?*

*Case:*

Among the many studies which have been made seeking to show the effect upon children of moving pictures, the following may be cited. Lehman and Witty at the University of Kansas have brought forward scientific evidence of a situation which up to this time people have only taken for granted as true: the prevalence of child attendance at the movies. Lehman and Witty had 5000 Kansas pupils, from eight and a half to twenty-two years of age, and coming from four different cities, check on a list of 200 play activities those in which they had voluntarily participated during the previous week. This was done three times during one year, in November, February, and April. The results showed definitely that the movie is one of the major recreational activities of these young people.

A. M. H. Heninger, ever since her complete survey of the motion picture theaters of New York City in 1907, has been a close observer of the moving picture and its effect upon children. Her conclusions after years of study of the question, are that while motion pictures may be a legitimate form of recreation for adults, for children they are positively harmful, morally, educationally, and psychologically. For example, in an article in the December, 1924 issue of *The Pedagogical Seminary* she

tells of one little girl who was brought in for consultation by her mother. When the girl was asked if she had not found *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs* a very lovely picture, she showed no enthusiasm, but definitely stated that the next time she wanted to see a picture where the man runs away with another man's wife. And the writer said she can duplicate this incident " by hundreds of thousands " of similar instances in the United States.

Data gathered by the Pennsylvania Board of Censors of moving pictures, bring further evidence along this line. These data show that of the movies they had studied, ". . . 50 per cent of the moving pictures are cheap melodrama or have to do with crime; 25 per cent are comedy and are often vulgar; and about 5 per cent are wholly good." Another authority holds that about 25 per cent show murders and suicides; 10 per cent intemperate drinking and drunkenness; and 27 to 30 per cent show robberies, gambling, poisoning, blackmailing, or crimes of the underworld.

*Discussion:*

1. To what extent do you think the moving picture is a factor in helping to shape the moral practices of our country? Upon what evidence do you base your conclusions?

2. According to the principle of psychological contagion, just what is the nature of the influence which the moving picture has upon the moral outlook of our people?

3. Show the part imitation plays in making the moving picture a force for good or for bad morals. Illustrate by specific examples from recent moving pictures which you have seen.

4. Evaluate Peters' " Merit Ratings on Moving Picture Shows." Rate a current moving picture by the same scale and report what you consider its value.

5. Define " a good movie." Is goodness homogeneous?

*Sources:*

1. Cooley, pp. 336–337; Chapter 14.

2. Cressy, Paul G., " The Motion Picture as Informal Education," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 7:504–515, April, 1934.

3. Ellis, D. C., and Thornborough, Laura, *Motion Pictures in Education,* T. Y. Crowell and Company, New York, 1923.

4. Kellogg, Arthur, "Minds Made by the Movies," *Survey Graphic,* 22:245–250, 287–297, May, 1933.

5. Mitchell, Alice M., *Children and Movies,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.

6. Payne Fund Studies, *Motion Pictures and Youth,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933.

7. Peters, pp. 327–329.

8. Smith, *Introduction,* p. 87.

9. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 153–155.

# THE EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCE OF SOUND PICTURES

PROBLEM. *How can the latent educational power of sound pictures be better utilized for social progress and undesirable influences be eliminated?*

*Case:*
   The recent Payne Fund studies have brought to light much interesting data as to the effects of the average sound picture upon the youth of our country. Some of their findings are:
   1. One person out of every three attending sound picture theaters in the United States is a child or an adolescent. Professors Charters and Dale report a weekly average attendance at our moving picture theaters in 1929 of 77,000,000 admissions, 23,000,000 of which are minors.
   2. These youths see practically nothing but adult films.
   3. At least 75 per cent of these adult films portray primarily love, sex, and crime scenes. Professor Dale's random sampling of 119 films revealed 449 crimes depicted. He found only 9 per cent of the educational effects of these films to be socially desirable.
   4. Tests showed that these films play a much more important role in the imaginative life of children than do books.
   5. Psycho-galvonometer tests showed that scenes of horror and intense excitement greatly overstimulate children. Repeated psychological experiments have proven the overstimulation of children to be a fundamental cause of emotional instability and poor work in school.

6. Professor Blumer's autobiographies of children's movie experiences showed that in 61 per cent of the cases studied, children had at times been badly terrified by scenes in the films. Also, " bad " suggestions apparently greatly outweigh any good suggestions, and are constant, cumulative, and irresistible in their effects.

7. Since laws preventing children's attending undesirable movies and censorship have failed, the Payne Committee suggests new types of films for our children.

*Discussion:*

1. What socio-psychological principles explain the finding that experiences with sound pictures are more potent than literature in molding the imagination of children?

2. What is the importance of imagination in the educational experience of children? How is this significant?

3. What social agencies in our communities ought to interest themselves in better sound pictures for children? How could each operate effectively to this end? Wherein would cooperation be desirable?

4. What can the school do, in and out of the school itself, to utilize sound pictures more effectively for educational purposes? List and explain as many approaches to this problem as you can.

5. What are the peculiar pedagogical advantages of sound pictures in molding character and educational training?

6. List the principles of educational sociology which are basic in explaining both the educative and the *de*-educative effects of sound pictures.

*Sources:*

1. Arnspiger, Varney C., *Measuring the Effectiveness of Sound Pictures as Teaching Aids,* Contributions to Education, No. 565, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1933.

2. Clark, Clarence C., " Sound Motion Pictures as an Aid in Classroom Teaching," *School Review,* 40:669–681, November, 1932.

3. Devereaux, Frederick L., and others, *The Educational Talking Picture,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1933.

4. *Educational Sociology, Journal of,* Vol. 6, No. 4, December, 1932. Entire issue.

5. Forman, Henry J., *Our Movie-Made Children,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933.

6. Kulp, pp. 460–465.

7. Mitchell, Alice M., *Children and the Movies,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.

8. Peters, pp. 327–329.

9. Seagoe, Mary V., " The Child's Reaction to the Movies," *Journal of Juvenile Research,* 15:169–180, July, 1931.

10. Stoddard, George D., *What Motion Pictures Mean to the Child,* University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa, Child Welfare Pamphlet No. 31.

11. See Problems 19 and 21.

## THE PUBLIC AND THE MOVIES

**PROBLEM.** *To what extent is the public aware of the powerful influences of the movies in educating public tastes, opinions, and morals?*

*Case:*

Professor L. L. Thurstone of the University of Chicago evolved the following scale for measuring people's attitudes towards the movies. If you believe the statement made is true, put a plus sign (+) in the space before the statement; if you believe it is false, put a minus sign (—) in the space before the statement.

1.  (    )  The movies occupy time that should be spent in more wholesome recreation.
2.  (    )  I am tired of the movies; I have seen too many poor ones.
3.  (    )  The movies are the best civilizing device ever developed.
4.  (    )  Movies are the most important cause of crime.
5.  (    )  Movies are all right but a few of them give the rest of them a bad name.
6.  (    )  I like to see movies once in a while but they do disappoint you sometimes.
7.  (    )  I think the movies are fairly interesting.
8.  (    )  Movies are just a harmless pastime.
9.  (    )  The movies to me are just a way to kill time.
10. (    )  The influence of the movies is decidedly for good.
11. (    )  The movies are good, clean entertainment.
12. (    )  Movies increase one's appreciation of beauty.
13. (    )  I'd never miss the movies if we didn't have them.

14. ( ) Sometimes I feel that the movies are desirable and sometimes I doubt it.

15. ( ) It is a sin to go to the movies.

16. ( ) There would be very little progress without the movies.

17. ( ) The movies are the most vital form of art today.

18. ( ) The movie is the best entertainment that can be obtained cheaply.

19. ( ) A movie once in a while is a good thing for everybody.

20. ( ) The movies are one of the few things I can enjoy by myself.

21. ( ) Going to the movies is a foolish way to spend your money.

22. ( ) Moving pictures bore me.

23. ( ) As they now exist, movies are wholly bad for children.

24. ( ) Such a pernicious influence as the movies is bound to weaken the moral fiber of those who attend.

25. ( ) As a protest against the movies we should pledge ourselves never to attend them.

26. ( ) The movies are the most important single influence for evil.

27. ( ) The movies are the most powerful influence for good in American life.

28. ( ) I would go to the movies more often if I were sure of finding something good.

29. ( ) If I had my choice of anything I wanted to do, I would go to the movies.

30. ( ) The pleasure people get from the movies just about balances the harm they do.

31. ( ) I don't find much that is educational in the current films.

32. ( ) The information that you get from the movies is of little value.

33. ( ) Movies are a bad habit.

34. ( ) I like the movies as they are because I go to be entertained, not educated.

35. ( ) On the whole, the movies are pretty decent.

36. ( ) The movies are undermining respect for authority.

37. ( ) I like to see other people enjoy the movies whether I enjoy them myself or not.

38. ( ) The movies are to blame for the prevalence of sex offences.

39. (   ) The moving picture is one of the great educational institutions for the common people.
40. (   ) Young people are learning to smoke, drink, and pet from the movies.

*Discussion:*

1. Check by this scale your own attitudes towards the movies. In what respects do you disagree with the findings reported in problem 19 and problem 20?

2. Make copies of this scale and have acquaintances in different walks of life check by this device their attitudes towards the movies.

3. From the total findings of the class, can you discover any tendencies towards important variations of opinion representative of different classes and individuals? If so, describe and explain these.

4. In general, what are your conclusions from this exercise as to the attitudes commonly held relative to the influence of the movies?

5. Do you discover any need for better informing the public regarding the true influence of the movies? Explain.

6. What do you suggest specifically ought to be done about it?

*Sources:*

1. See Problems 19 and 20.

2. *Educational Sociology, Journal of,* Vol. 6, No. 4, December, 1932. Entire issue.

3. Kulp, pp. 356–357.

4. Odegaard, pp. 199–223.

5. *Sociology and Social Research,* Volume 10, January–February, 1934. Various articles.

6. Thurstone, L. L., "Scale for Measuring Attitudes Towards the Movies," *The Journal of Educational Research,* 22:88–94, September, 1930.

# EDUCATIONAL VALUES OF INDUSTRIAL
# EXPERIENCES

PROBLEM. *How can general experience contribute informally to a person's complete education?*

*Case:*

One of the large universities of the East has organized a new college for the training of college instructors. The director of this college believes that our college teachers are trained in too narrow fields of specialization and that they are not given necessary opportunities for broadening their viewpoints through social and economic experiences. He requires that all students in the college spend at least one year in the employ of industrial concerns. These contacts will help them to see the problems faced by the industrial workers and at the same time obtain information on the workings of an industrial society.

He also requires that the students spend one year abroad studying in European universities. During the period abroad they live in foreign homes. This training is for the purpose of broadening their social and cultural backgrounds; learning at first hand the attitude of foreign residents toward current social and economic problems, and promoting international understanding.

It is also proposed that these teachers after graduation shall spend one half of their time in the classroom and the other half in the field in order that classroom theory may be correlated with practical situations. He hopes that the time spent in the

field will assist the instructor in discovering the development of new social-economic trends and thus bring the correlation of theory and practice to the point where cultural lag may eventually be largely eliminated.

*Discussion:*

1. Show by illustrations the failure of formal educational institutions to keep up with social economic trends.

2. Is it possible for our formal educational institutions to correlate with the informal educational agencies? Why? List the educational outcomes that may be expected from this contact with actual industrial situations.

3. Evaluate the educational experience gained through a summer's employment by listing under the Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education such contributions as this experience may have contributed to each of these objectives.

4. Work out a suggested plan showing how the formal educational institutions may be correlated with the informal educational agencies in your community. Indicate where the initiative and leadership should be found and how exercised.

5. What basic principles underlie formal and informal educational agencies, the division of their labors, and the correlation of their respective contributions?

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 6.
2. Finney, pp. 247–248.
3. Kinneman, Chapter 39.
4. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. 1, Chapter 3.
5. Ross, E. A., *Principles of Sociology,* Chapter 24.

# THE EDUCATIONAL POWER OF THE THEATER

PROBLEM. *How can the educational possibilities of the theater be turned to the instructive purposes it might easily serve, and also be made more generally available to the public?*

*Case:*

The appeal of the theater is universal. From the crude out-of-door puppet shows or the religious plays held at the oriental temple fairs to the luxuriously appointed spectacles of a lavish movie house, the fundamental appeal is the same. As a result, the educative power of drama has always been a potent influence in all ages and in all lands. But its use as a positive educational force has only been dabbled with in the schools and has never been adequately mobilized for popular education outside the schools in the way it might be. Where its influence has been extensive, it has scarcely been properly censored and has never been made a tool for constructive educational instruction. It has been an educational force, nevertheless, but one that has too often been an evil or at best a superficial force, and not a power for building character and raising the general cultural and educational level of the whole group.

The nearest approach to the use of the theater for this purpose was in ancient Greece where it served a truly educational end. In modern times a few countries such as Germany have moved in this direction. Almost every German city of any size boasts of a theater endowed by the state or by the municipality or by a group of individuals, to which the people go not for amusement

merely, but for a liberal education. There is a resident group of actors giving a repertoire of all the great classic plays of many languages. The German people are taxed for the support of their theaters just as for the support of their schools. The state exercises certain controls over the leading theaters so that, not business men whose prime interest is profits, but artistic directors whose prime interest is excellent production of plays possessing educational values, determine their policies. Prices are kept so low that anybody can attend, just as anybody can attend movies in the United States. So important do the Germans consider this means of education that the construction of such theaters continued even through the stress and strain of the World War. Theaters where people can go and pay big prices to see special attractions of every type from the musical comedy to the best of modern plays also exist. But the opportunity of seeing the very best plays by such writers as Sophocles, Shakespeare, Molière, Goethe, and Eugene O'Neill is open to everyone.

*Discussion:*

1. Give a general estimate of the quality of educational influence exerted through the theater in the United States today, exclusive of the movies. What is your evidence of this?

2. What desirable educational outcomes could one reasonably expect from such a plan for popularizing the theater as has been described as existing in Germany?

3. List arguments both for and against a plan of publicly supported theaters for educational purposes in the United States.

4. Outline a scheme whereby the greatest possible benefits of the educational power of the theater might be realized for the entire citizenry of our country. Make the plan as complete and detailed as possible.

5. What principles of educational sociology are peculiarly operative in the educational influences of the theater?

*Sources:*
1. Cooley, *Social Process,* pp. 359–361.
2. Isaacs, Edith J. R., *The American Theater in Social and Educational Life,* The National Theater Conference, New York.
3. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, pp. 208–212.
4. Ross, pp. 415, 429–430, 446.

# INFORMAL TYPES OF VISUAL–AUDITORY INSTRUCTION

PROBLEM. *Are the informal opportunities of visual-auditory instruction being as fully taken advantage of for the popular dissemination of knowledge as they could well be in the United States?*

*Case:*

Visual-auditory educational methods have long been important supplements to ordinary teaching methods. The model, the collection, the exhibit, the field trip, the stereopticon, the laboratory, and now the moving and talking picture are used extensively in the formal learning situations because of the intensity and permanency of the impressions made. Now the educational values of visual-auditory learning are being enormously extended through various means of popularizing instructional materials in informal public presentations. Demonstrations of everything from airplanes to farm machinery are common experiences. Art galleries and museums are more easily accessible and more popular than ever. Zoos are established, where animals and birds from every clime are housed in their natural settings, whether tropical or polar. Exhibits of every imaginable sort, ranging from floral to industrial, bring the people new ideas and interests. Fairs — local, county, state, and world in their scope — bring new breadths of experience to their respective visitors. The culmination of these informal presentations through the visual and auditory arts, on an enormously

widened scale, was perhaps reached in the Century of Progress at Chicago, where over twenty-two and one-half million admissions in 170 days bear witness to the extensiveness of its influences, reaching into the far corners of the country and beyond. Special exhibits of scientific, artistic, social, and industrial significance sent from numerous foreign countries, brought many of the values of foreign travel almost to our doors. The synchronization of moving pictures and spoken explanations was used in thousands of ways. Pictorial presentations in three dimensions — called dioramas — presented mining operations, industrial processes, social conditions, historical pageants, and the like. Great maps — colored, illuminated, spot-marked with indicative lights — portrayed graphically information on travel and geography. Miniature ships, railroads, machines, manufacturing plants, oil wells, and the like operated realistically. Actual demonstrations of office machines, long-distance telephony, telephone dialing system, garbled speech, diamond cutting, making of automobile tires from raw rubber, assembling automobiles, and modern housing arrangements opened up whole new worlds of experience for multitudes. Special demonstrations of the uses of liquid air, thyraton tubes, the stroboscope, the transparent man, the passage of sensory stimuli from nerve ends to the brain and back, the growth of cancer, and such almost occult mysteries, made plainly accessible in understandable form for the multitudes what was heretofore revealed only in the laboratories of the specialists. What a tremendous educational demonstration this was!

*Discussion:*

1. What are the socio-psychological bases explaining the effectiveness of informal dissemination of knowledge through the media cited above?

2. Survey a specific community to determine all the visual-

auditory types of informal educational opportunities available to the public.

3. Estimate the number of people taking advantage of any one or more of these popular means of enlightenment. To what extent are the people using these opportunities the ones most needing them?

4. Evaluate the total set-up of these informal, educational agencies for the given community in terms of their intrinsic, educational worth; the numbers reached; and the effectiveness of the presentations. How might they be made more worth while and more effective?

5. Outline an ideal set-up of visual-auditory type of educational facilities for the free dissemination of popular instruction, which you believe should be the minimum of facilities made available for the people, say, of every county. Suggest ways and means of obtaining, maintaining, and effectively operating such an exhibit.

6. What are the principles of educational sociology that would justify such an undertaking?

*Sources:*

1. Beard, Charles A., *A Century of Progress,* Harper and Brothers, New York, 1933.

2. Bogardus, Chapter 6, sections 28, 31.

3. Hines, Edna, "Cartoons and Social Control," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17: pp. 454–464, May–June, 1933.

4. Neurath, O., "Museums of the Future," *Survey-Graphic,* 22:458–463, 479–486, September, 1933.

5. Rea, P. M., *The Museum and the Community,* Science Press, Lancaster, Pa., 1932.

## EDUCATION THROUGH TRAVEL

Problem. *What are the educational effects of travel?*

*Case:*

According to information from the American Automobile Association, approximately 5,000,000 calls for maps and road information were received at its various offices throughout the United States for the year 1932, although this was a year " when touring was very much off." Although some of these calls represented duplicate calls from the same people, on the other hand, each call represented anywhere from one to six people who were to take a motor trip. Also, while this is probably the largest single agency serving the motoring public, there were thousands of other motorists who received similar service either through other service or insurance companies, through gasoline stations, or other informal agencies, or who motored without seeking any special road information. It is probably a safe estimate to say that during any normal year there are between 20,000,000 and 25,000,000 people taking motor trips of some distance and importance to various parts of the United States and adjoining countries.

But motoring does not represent the only means of travel by United States travelers. In 1932 some 474,000 trips were taken by airplane; 478,000,000 trips were taken by railroad; and another 153,000 passports were issued for foreign travel. Altogether our 130,000,000 citizens take over 500,000,000 trips somewhere. What a mobile society ours is! The breadth of contacts,

enrichment of the mind and understanding, the breaking down of the barriers of provincialism that result are incalculable. Here is certainly an enormous educative process going on incidentally in our midst, for which every serious-minded worker in the field of education should have some concern. Unfortunately, there are also certain *de*-educative factors working through this tremendously increased mobility of the present age. The sum total of influences that are thus modifying and reshaping our minds and characters should be studied and evaluated to see if they can be shaped to better ends.

One of the most educative uses made of man's natural desire to travel is found in Germany. Here groups of children of various ages are taken regularly upon jaunts through the country. They roam through woods and by streams, they visit places of historical interest and economic or social significance, they become familiar with museum and art exhibits. These are well-organized jaunts, under proper leadership and with suitable goals in view. Here the wanderlust is put to excellent use for educational ends.

*Discussion:*

1. What desirable types of educational outcomes should result from travel? List as many such outcomes as you can.

2. In what ways may travel very likely prove *de*-educative?

3. Suggest ways and means whereby the ordinary motor trip that any family might take could, through careful preparation, be made to serve more desirable ends.

4. Find out all you can about the German plan of taking school children on walking trips, and report on the organization, interest, and outcomes.

5. Suggest specifically how this idea might be adapted to our American schools, and the outcomes you would expect from such a project. Where is it now being done in the United States?

6. What principles of educational sociology are peculiarly operative in the educational experiences coming from travel?

*Sources:*

1. Finney, p. 35.

2. Hansel, Eva B., " Youth Hostels Here," *New York Times,* section 10, p. 2, June 23, 1935.

3. Kinneman, Chapter 19.

4. Kulp, pp. 263–264.

5. Park and Burgess, pp. 784–787.

6. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, pp. 167–191, 921–925.

7. Ross, Chapters 8, 9.

8. Rothschild, John, " The Revival of Travel," *Progressive Education,* 11:311–316, April–May, 1934.

9. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 272–275.

## AN EXERCISE IN INTERVIEWING

PROBLEM. *What educative values does one derive from travel?*

*Case:*

Interview a number of acquaintances and obtain their testimony as to any educative values which they may have received from a trip abroad or to some point of special interest. After securing such information from a number of people, write a paper summarizing your data and indicating what you conclude to be the degree and nature of the educational values accruing from travel. In preparation for your interview organize some such check list as the following:

Interviewee: _____ Interviewer: _____
Nature and extent of the trip reported: _____

TYPES OF EDUCATIONAL VALUES ACCRUING

| New Accretions of Knowledge | New Habits Formed | New Attitudes Formed | New Interests Aroused | New Ideals Established |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  |  |  |  |

NOTE: Indicate by an asterisk those outcomes that cannot be classed as strictly new values but rather revivification of old educational outcomes previously experienced.

### Some Hints for the Inexperienced Interviewer

1. Establish a thoroughly friendly relationship with the interviewee before any suggestion of an interview is made.

2. Choose interviewees who will report a fairly recent travel experience.

3. Secure enough interviews so that your results have validity. Try to get reports on different types of travel experiences, such as a trip to Niagara Falls, a trip to a Legionnaire convention, a trip to the Century of Progress, etc.

4. Make an appointment so that your interview will be the sole matter of concern for from thirty minutes to an hour.

5. Provide for privacy and freedom from disturbance.

6. Put the interviewee completely at ease. Make the occasion an enjoyable experience in which the interviewee appears at an advantage in that he is relating a worth-while experience which you have not had.

7. Outline specifically in your own mind the information you wish.

    *a.* Aim at data as objective as possible.

    *b.* Seek only pertinent data.

    *c.* While assuring the obtaining of all essential information, yet keep items reduced to a minimum.

    *d.* Prepare a written schedule of questions, familiarize yourself with it, and then discard it before the interview.

8. Practice thinking from the interviewee's point of view so as to understand his attitudes and reactions.

9. Try to establish an introspective interest upon the part of the interviewee as to just what educational benefits he did derive.

10. Begin by letting the interviewee relate some of the most interesting of his experiences. Wherever probable educational

outcomes are apparent, skillful questioning without unnecessarily motivating the answer will bring out the information you wish.

11. Assist the interviewee to be discriminating by such distinctions as the following:

  *a.* Dividing possible educational outcomes up into Knowledge, Habits, Ideals, Attitudes, and Interests, and sometimes Skills.

  *b.* Determining whether a given experience yielded a genuinely new training outcome or merely revived an old one.

12. Develop the art of sympathetic listening with only such interruptions as are essential to elucidate or supplement.

13. After the interviewee has told his story, help him to supplement it by qualifications, by suggested additions, by analyzing generalizations, and by reconciling apparent conflicts.

14. Make your questions concise, clear, and free from misinterpretation, yet do not imply an answer.

15. Submit your interpretations of ambiguous or uncertain presentation to the interviewee for verification or correction before you leave.

16. While maintaining the whole experience on a plane of enjoyment and fun, avoid undue levity, forwardness, or superiority upon your part. Frankness, earnestness, and courtesy are the keys to success.

17. At the end of the interview, fill in the prepared check list with the co-operation of the interviewee, but not before he is " talked out."

18. Ask permission to submit a brief of the results of the interview for verification and correction.

19. Write up the results of your interview immediately afterwards so as to avoid dimness and lapses of memory.

20. It would be a valuable experience if you could retain this

check list and report, and repeat the interview a year or two later to determine to what extent the educational values reported have persisted or disappeared.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, *The New Social Research,* University of Southern California Press, Los Angeles.

2. Bingham, Walter Van D., and Moore, Bruce V., *How to Interview,* Harper and Brothers, New York, 1931.

3. Kinneman, Chapter 19.

4. Kulp, pp. 263–264.

5. Park and Burgess, pp. 36–39, 184–187.

6. Ross, Chapters 8, 10.

7. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 272–275.

## THE NEWSPAPER AS A UNIVERSITY

**PROBLEM.** *To what extent is the daily newspaper an educational force today?*

*Case:*

The title of this exercise was the title of an editorial taken from a recent issue of a large metropolitan daily in the Middle West. The editorial went on in part to say:

"If a man cannot graduate from a university, he should at least graduate from his daily paper," Glenn Frank is reported to have said. This is expert testimony on two counts. Glenn Frank is president of the University of Wisconsin, and erstwhile editor of the *Century Magazine*. He is also syndicating daily wisdom to the press.

Another writer commenting says that Mr. Frank is not "spoofing" in these remarks. The truth is the man who will spend thirty minutes every day with his paper will have a liberal education. He will know all that the editors and the reporters know.

There is nothing second hand or "hand-me-down" in this sort of education. It is the latest in science, history, religion, philosophy, travel, sport, society, politics, and business. New courses are added without notice. A man may major in anything he chooses as he goes along, and usually comes out qualified for any emergency.

A newspaper course without a college education fits a man better for landing on his feet than a university degree without a newspaper training. It will be hard for his fellows to trip him up.

A modern newspaper may have a policy, but it has no pontifical creed or curriculum to hamper it. It is a motion picture of the world, flashed each day upon the screen a few hours later. Today is the only day with

each publication. All the past may be contributory but it is not controlling. It takes advantage of the very latest in result or investigation. Its text has new editions hourly.

*Discussion:*

1. Upon what grounds is the press claimed to be a powerful and far-reaching educational agency? Evaluate the above editorial from this point of view.

2. What are the important services of the press? To what extent is each educational?

3. From the point of view of the newspaper being an important educational agency, criticize and evaluate the code of ethics in journalism. What would you add? Why?

4. What is news? To what extent is news in and of itself important educationally?

5. Attack or defend Cooley's contention that the newspaper is primarily " organized gossip."

6. In summary, do you feel that the newspaper is or is not a valuable educational agency in society? Substantiate your conclusion.

*Sources:*

1. Cooley, *Social Organization,* pp. 83–85.
2. *Forum,* October, 1931, pp. 200–206.
3. Good, pp. 381–383.
4. Kinneman, Chapter 37.
5. Odegaard, Chapter 5, " The Fourth Estate."
6. Peters, pp. 315–325.
7. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I., pp. 203–208.
8. Ross, pp. 430–431.

# SOME EDUCATIONAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE RADIO

PROBLEM. *The value of the radio in motivating learning and enriching the curriculum offerings of the school.*

*Case:*

A rural agricultural school, with an enrollment of 250 in the grades and 135 in the high school, has installed a complete radio set with loud speakers in every room and a microphone for broadcasting to the schoolrooms from the superintendent's office. By means of this, programs in the grades are given each week in history, civics, geography, and literature. These programs are prepared and broadcast by expert teachers in the respective fields. Similarly, expertly prepared lessons on the high school level are presented in each of the subject fields. The class in American literature, for example, each week heard a lecture from a University of Chicago professor. Special educational features of various kinds were taken advantage of as they appeared. Damrosch's Friday morning musical hour is an illustration. Also, the problem of control of the students during the noon hour was met by arranging one room where students gathered during that period for informational talks on general subjects. The Home and Farm Bureau broadcasting on rural and agricultural problems was especially popular. Another room was set aside for students interested in special programs of music. In the gymnasium the radio provided music for the

supervised social dances. In this way, the outlook, interest, and informational opportunities of the students were broadened immeasurably beyond anything that this rural community could otherwise ever have afforded its students.

*Discussion:*

1. What is the present status and the future possibilities of the use of the radio as a supplementary educational agency in the schools? Illustrate with as many examples as you can find.

2. List as many specific methods as you can find for using the radio to advantage in the school.

3. " To broaden the outlook and vision of the pupils " is an objective that one writer has set down for education by radio. List other educationally sound objectives of radio education.

4. What pedagogical advantages has the radio as a teaching device over ordinary classroom procedures?

5. List the dangers to educational and social progress that might result from misuse of the radio.

6. Summarize the principles of educational sociology illustrated by the use of the radio as an educational agency.

*Sources:*

1. Bagley, W. C., " What the Future Holds for Broadcasting into the Schools," *School and Society*, 33:713–716, May 30, 1931.

2. Cisin, H. G., " Modernizing Educational Methods Through Radio Instruction," *Nation's Schools*, 8:31–34, July, 1931.

3. Cooper, William J., " The Future of Radio in Education," *School and Society*, 36:65–68, July 16, 1932.

4. Corbett-Smith, A., " British Broadcasting and the Art of Enlightenment," *Fortnightly*, 124:848–858, December, 1925.

5. Diamond, Thomas, " Radio as an Aid in British Education," *School and Society*, 30:848–851, December 21, 1929.

6. Drueck, G. P., " Broadcasting Education to Pupils of Chicago and the Midwest," *Nation's Schools*, 6:49–54, December, 1930.

7. *Education by Radio,* " North Carolina Schools Broadcast," Vol. 2, No. 21, p. 83, July 7, 1932.

8. Fowlkes, John G., " The Wisconsin Experiment in Radio Education," *Wisconsin Journal of Education,* 63:167–169, December, 1930.

9. Hard, William, " Europe's Air and Ours," *Atlantic Monthly,* October, 1932, pp. 3–13.

10. Jarvis, Emerson D., " Radio Education. Major Objectives of the Radio Lesson," *American School Board Journal,* 81:35–36, 120, November, 1930.

11. *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* October, 1932. Entire issue.

12. Koon, Cline M., " University and College Radio Classes." United States Office of Education, Circular No. 53, July, 1933.

13. Lumley, F. H., *Broadcasting Foreign-Language Lessons,* Monograph 19, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1934.

14. MacLatchey, Josephine H., Editor, *Education on the Air, 1934,* Institution for Education by Radio, Fifth Yearbook, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1934.

15. MacLatchey, Josephine H., Editor, *Education on the Air,* Institution for Education by Radio. Columbus, Ohio State University, 1931, Second Yearbook, Chapters 4, 6.

16. Perry, A., " Radio and Education," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928–1930,* Chapter 18.

17. Peters, p. 326.

18. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, pp. 212–215.

19. Schubert, Paul, *The Electric Word — The Rise of the Radio,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928, pp. 216–222, 250–279.

20. Tyson, Levering, *The Radio Tunes In,* The American Association of Adult Education, New York, Chapters 3, 4, 10.

21. Tyson, Levering, *Radio and Education,* The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1931.

22. Warren, C. H., " Culture on the Air," *Fortnightly,* 139:24–36, January, 1933.

# RADIO CONTROL

PROBLEM. *How can the potential educational values of the radio be salvaged for the best interests of social progress?*

*Case:*

Recent data show that broadcasting stations owned by educational institutions are repeatedly being driven off the air in order to make way for commercial broadcasting programs. In 1931, only 6 per cent of the total radio channels in the United States were controlled by educational institutions. In 1932 this had been reduced to 3.5 per cent of the national quota and in 1933 to 1.8 per cent of the national quota. A few specific instances in which commercial interests have been given preference to the detriment of educational interests follow:

1. The Colorado Agricultural College was broadcasting once a week at 5 P.M. an educational program over a commercial station in Denver. Because of complaints, they surveyed their audience to know what time was most suitable for the listeners to have the program broadcast. The overwhelming vote was for either 7 or 8 P.M. The College asked that the time for their broadcast be changed, and it was changed — to 4 P.M. because commercial interests needed the other available hours.

2. Station WOW located at Omaha, Nebraska, tried to usurp the wave length frequency assigned to station WCAJ of the University of Nebraska. Only after costly litigation, during which the case was carried to the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia, was the case settled in favor of the University.

3. Station WEAO of the Ohio State University was threatened with being deprived of half of the time they were using for regular educational broadcasts of a rather extensive nature. The situation arose from certain reports made by an examiner from the Federal Radio Commission. His report was shown to be " erroneous, misleading, not supported by and directly contrary to records, prejudiced in favor of commercialism in radio programs, substantially excludes educational programs, and is directly contrary to the public interest, convenience, and necessity of the people of Ohio. The report and recommendations take from the state of Ohio her greatest natural educational resource and give it to a small concern to use locally in one corner of the state for private gain."

4. Difficulty which developed in Arkansas is summarized by President J. C. Futrall of the University of Arkansas:

In brief, the action of the Federal Radio Commission was this: We shared full-time 50-50 on a certain wave length with a purely commercial station in Little Rock. The Little Rock station made application for the full-time on the wave length. The Federal Radio Commission granted them three-fourths of the time and set apart for our one-fourth of the time, certain specific hours almost all of which are totally unsuitable for educational broadcasting. For example, we have from 7 to 8 in the morning and the period from 5 to 6:30 P.M. None of this time is suitable for our purposes. The only other time that we have is the period from 11 A.M. to 1 P.M., a part of which is satisfactory for broadcasting farm programs. Incidentally, I might say that the Little Rock station is a member of the Columbia chain system and that the people in Little Rock and vicinity who have reasonably good radio receiving sets can receive the Columbia chain from any one of a number of stations.

5. A report to the Advisory Committee on Education by Radio by authorities of Columbia University, which had endeavored to do broadcasting over the NBC network, said in part:

To conform with the wishes of the broadcasting company would have cost the University between $15,000 and $20,000 and would have necessitated requiring its faculty members to make their services available at . . . impossible hours. . . . The experiment began to be more and more unsatisfactory chiefly because the items that were wanted for broadcasting were more sensational in character and had little regard for sound educational presentation.

6. Dean R. B. Smith of the extension division of New York University reports that, after some experimentation with sharing commercial channels during 1929, it developed that the period given the University for broadcasting had been so reduced in value and duration, finally to fifteen minutes during the Thursday lunch hour, and fifteen minutes of the Friday dinner hour, that broadcasting had to be abandoned by the University.

7. Another type of commercial control of the air broadcasting facilities to the exclusion of educational programs which are to the interests of the public is illustrated by the case of Professor William Z. Ripley of Harvard University. Hundreds of millions of dollars have been lost by investors in public utility securities, and a heavy part of this loss has fallen on savings banks. Professor Ripley, one of the leading economists of the country and a cautious conservative in his general attitude, was asked to speak to the National Association of Mutual Savings Banks on ways and means of preventing similar losses in the future. The National Broadcasting Company refused to broadcast Ripley's address! " I have been asked to blue-pencil my speech," said Professor Ripley when he faced his audience. " I have never submitted to blue-penciling and will not begin now." He did not — but neither did his scathing analysis of public utility financing get on the air. (Quoted from the *Wyoming Labor Journal,* June 24, 1932.) Similarly, according to the *Chicago Daily News* of October 16, 1930, Senator Reed of Missouri was deliberately cut off in the middle of his speech over the Colum-

bia Broadcasting System in which he was attacking the radio trust.

*Discussion:*

1. Who should control broadcasting in America? Why? Give the principles in educational sociology which form the basis of your answer.

*Sources:*

1. Allen, Raymond, " Static Ahead! " *The New Outlook,* 162:19, July, 1933.

2. *Education by Radio:*

Vol. 2, No. 6, " Ohio Rises to Defend Its People," February 11, 1932.

Vol. 2, No. 19, " The Radio and the American Future," June 23, 1932.

Vol. 2, No. 24, " Public Stations Enlighten Wisconsin Citizens," October 13, 1932.

Vol. 2, No. 26, " The Future of Radio in American Education," December 8, 1932.

3. Kaltenborn, H. V., " Radio: Dollars and Nonsense," *Scribner's Magazine,* 89:489–498, May, 1931.

4. Morgan, Joy E., *The New American Plan for Radio,* reprint from *The 1933–34 Debate Handbook,* National Committee on Education by Radio, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

5. Robinson, Ira E., " Who Owns the Radio? " *Journal of the National Education Association,* 19:286, December, 1930.

6. Ventura Free Press, *American Broadcasting,* " An Analytical Study of One Day's Output of 206 Commercial Radio Stations, Including Program Contents and Advertising Interruptions," October, 1933, Ventura, California (free distribution).

# THE PULPIT AS AN EDUCATOR OF PUBLIC OPINION

PROBLEM. *To what extent is the pulpit an effective social agency in molding public opinion?*

*Case:*

In one of the largest of our state universities, some students conceived the idea of preparing a rating scale by which to judge the effectiveness of the sermons preached by the various ministers of the city. They rated each minister upon the content of the sermon, the effectiveness of delivery, the organization of materials, the interest shown by the audience, etc. A general report on the findings was run in the college paper, showing among other things the number of people found to be sleeping during the sermon, the entire lack of content so far as the rater could see, and similar unfavorable as well as some favorable comments. Several ministers broke into print with scathing rebukes of the whole performance, calling it sacrilegious.

*Discussion:*

1. Give your reactions to this rating of ministers and state the reasons for your point of view.

2. What is the relative position that worship and instruction should have in the services of the church? Give your reasons.

3. Does the church have any strictly educational functions? If so, what are they and on what grounds can you justify them? If none, why not?

4. What weaknesses of the church as an educational force does the above case illustrate?

5. Prepare a score card, based upon accepted sociological principles, for the rating of any given church as an effective educational institution in society.

6. List the principles of educational sociology upon which you have based your score card.

*Sources:*
1. Betts, pp. 71–79.
2. Bogardus, E. S., " Measuring Public Opinion," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17:456–469, May–June, 1933.
3. Finney, Chapter 4.
4. Good, Chapter 12.
5. Pemberton, H. Earl, " Optimum Rating Scale for Public Opinion," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17:470–472, May–June, 1933.
6. Peters, pp. 302–313.
7. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, pp. 397–414.
8. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 220–228.

# SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL PROCEDURE—ADMINISTRATION

T HE relationship of administration as an educational func-
tion to sociology may not be clear to all. This relationship
is evident when we realize that social progress is definitely de-
pendent upon a telic conception of education. The school has
an educational function which is based on sociological authority.
The content of the curriculum is motivated by sociological in-
quiry and authority. Educators have realized that the child can-
not be educated apart from his social surroundings; that he
must be educated with respect to present social conditions and
in conformity to expected future social conditions. While the
school is thought of as a distinctly educational institution, its
very nature, its prescribed curricula and functions are socio-
logical. If we ignored the background of the school and the
sociological implications of its curricula and functions, we would
still be forced to recognize it as a social institution, for it brings
children together in groups. Any institution bringing indi-
viduals together is social in its results. The true educational
objectives cannot be validated without giving consideration
to the science of sociology.

A major factor of educational procedure is administration.
Administration implies control, and when we think of directly
controlling others or sharing our experiences with others, which
leads to a modified control, we are dealing with sociological
principles. A very important and interesting question arises here:

Does one group have the social right to impose restrictions and often demand conformity to those regulations? How far can we go in standardization and uniformity? Every high school principal and superintendent is interested in the answer to this question, because of the growing authority of standardizing agencies.

In recent times writers have been much concerned about the relation of the school to the large mass of our population. For years the question of equality of educational opportunity has been a burning issue. The history of education records the battles for a free school, state support, adequate equipment, and well trained teachers. Now, the problem of equality of opportunity is brought to the fore again. If social intelligence is to be raised, educational opportunities must be equalized and extended. The attitude of Washington, Jefferson, and Madison that government and its success is dependent upon knowledge and an enlightened citizenry is still the ideal held by our leaders. Social progress and social well-being are advanced or retarded as we advance or retreat educationally. The actual physical advance or retreat is the problem of the educator; the actual social acceleration or decline is the problem of the sociologist. The interdependence and interplay of the two is the problem of the educational sociologist. Are educational opportunities equal? What can be done to improve conditions? What social effects follow a decline or advance in education? What is society's responsibility to its schools? These are the questions one must answer in an intelligent discussion of the problems of equal educational opportunity.

And then, the educational sociologist must be concerned with the problem of finance. We always have the question of money and the relative value of the things we wish to purchase. The practical business man is forever asking, " Can we afford it? " There is only one way to answer that question. One must con-

sider the functions and aims of social integration, social well-being, and social ends, and, in the light of these major social objectives, determine the amount of money to be appropriated to each social service. After this has been done, then we must determine sources of present income and perhaps new sources of income. Once we determine what we need, the amount of money we can raise and spend, and the type of services we wish to buy, then we can properly settle the problem of equal educational opportunity.

When you finish the problems in this section, you should understand the sociological implications of the function of administration in its various aspects of the interrelation of educational objectives and sociology, control, equality of opportunity, and educational costs.

## EDUCATION AND THE *STATUS QUO*

PROBLEM. *Is it the duty of the free public school in the United States to lend the strength of its influence to the maintenance of the status quo in political, economic, social, religious, and educational conditions?*

*Case:*

An excerpt from the article entitled, "Education for the *Status Quo*" by Roger N. Baldwin reads as follows:

On the whole, it may be said without question that the public schools have been handed over to the keeping of the militant defenders of the *status quo,* the Daughters of the American Revolution, the American Legion, the Fundamentalists, the Ku Klux Klan, and the War Department. Look at the twelve-year record! Compulsory patriotic rites and flag saluting by law in most states; compulsory reading of the Protestant Bible in eighteen states, contrary to the provision for the separation of church and state; compulsory teaching of the Constitution by prescribed routine; making a crime of the teaching of evolution in three states; special oaths of loyalty for teachers not required of other public servants in ten states; loyalty oaths required of students as a condition of graduation in many cities; history textbooks revised under pressure to conform to prejudice; restriction or ban on teachers' unions affiliated with the labor movements; laws protecting tenure beaten or emasculated; compulsory military training in both colleges and high schools, with inevitable pressure on students and teachers by the military mind.

*Discussion:*

1. Define the "*status quo*" in terms of sociological conditions in the United States. List some of those conditions which you consider are most seriously in need of being rectified.

2. To what extent is education contributing to the perpetuation of those undesirable *status quo* conditions which you have listed? Substantiate your position.

3. Given a free hand, to what extent *could* education rectify these undesirable conditions, do you think? To what extent *would* education be likely to contribute to their alleviation? What other forces than the defenders of the *status quo* would tend to minimize education's effectiveness in this respect?

4. In the light of the contention that the school is an institution of society established to hand down the cultural heritage from one generation to the next, ought it not seek to maintain the *status quo?* Why?

5. In the light of the tendency of certain experimenters and progressives to become faddists and go off on a tagent, is it not desirable to have such defenders of the *status quo* as are referred to above on the job to defend our social structure from unnecessary turmoil? Why?

6. Explain what your position is as to the duty of the public school in respect to the problem outlined above. Is it primarily an institution for social stability or social progress? Why? Give the principles of educational sociology upon which you base your contentions.

*Sources:*

1. Baldwin, Roger N., "Education for the **Status Quo**," *Progressive Education,* 10:194–198, April, 1933.

2. Bogardus, Chapter 3, sections 9, 10, 11, 13, 14; Chapter 7, sections 34, 38, 39; Chapter 8, sections 40, 43, 44, 45.

3. Finney, Chapters 23, 24, 25.

4. Kinneman, Chapter 25.

5. Peters, pp. 158–163; Chapter 17.

6. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 295–315; Chapter 14.

# SOME CONTRIBUTIONS OF SOCIOLOGY TO EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

PROBLEM. *How can principles of educational sociology assist the educator in determining the educational objectives which should guide him?*

*Case:*

Superintendent T. had been in charge of the school system in W. for a number of years. The community had grown from a small residential suburb in which the citizens were predominantly college graduates, to a large industrial community including citizens of every social stratum. The inappropriateness of a purely college preparatory curriculum in the high school was becoming increasingly apparent so that a curriculum reorganization was imperative. In seeking to reorganize his high school curricula, the superintendent recognized the necessity of first establishing a set of educational objectives that would meet the situation for his local community and would be justifiable upon the basis of progressive educational theory. He felt himself quite at a loss as to how he should do this.

*Discussion:*

1. What is the fundamental sociological relationship between the individual and the group that Mr. T. should first understand?

2. What is the function of the school in furthering social progress? What educational objectives are indispensable if the school is to serve the community to the best advantage?

3. Explain and illustrate what Peters means by his "blueprints for the optimum citizen." How might these aid Mr. T.?

4. Choose one of Peters' five blueprints and translate these general social objectives into specific educational objectives that a classroom teacher could use.

5. Specify clearly Superintendent T.'s responsibilities in proper articulation of this high school curriculum with elementary and college curricula. Why is this socially imperative?

6. Summarize what you consider to be the most important sociological principles that Superintendent T. should have in mind before setting up his educational objectives. How should he make use of these principles?

*Sources:*

1. Finney, Chapter 25.
2. Finney and Zeleny, pp. 194–196.
3. Good, pp. 45–63.
4. Judd, Chapters 3, 4; pp. 68–96.
5. Kinneman, Chapter 7.
6. Kulp, Chapter 4.
7. National Education Association, "Report of the Committee on Social-Economic Goals for America," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 20:9, January, 1934.
8. Peters, Chapters 6, 19.
9. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 15.
10. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 4.
11. Tuttle, Chapters 1, 5, 7.

EQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR ALL

PROBLEM. *What is the basis and the significance of the objective of a free system of public education for " all the children of all the people? "*

*Case:*

Throughout the ages, countries have prospered in direct proportion to the education and enlightenment of their people. Although this fact is written so plainly on the pages of history that he who runs may read, yet there are always shortsighted citizens who cannot see the necessity of maintaining a system of public education commensurate with the business and industrial development of the time. Nevertheless, a few facts stand out which are incontrovertible. First, a nation cannot progress faster than its citizenry. Second, the advancement of the citizenry is a matter of individual growth and development according to individually latent powers. Third, it is necessary to educate both the commonality up to the maximum of their potentialities in order to secure an intelligent citizenry; and the geniuses to the maximum of their potentialities to provide the highest possible types of expert leadership in every field of human endeavor. Fourth, as Terman has shown in his *Genetic Studies of Genius,* the superior intellect is just as apt to be found in people born to the lower economic and social orders as to the higher. But the *development* of latent genius depends upon opportunities of training. This was shown in Ward's studies which revealed the following points: 80 per cent of all distinguished persons are born in large cities, and practically

all gravitate to intellectual centers; more than 90 per cent of all distinguished persons come from well-to-do families where the struggle for existence does not bar them from educational opportunities; 98 per cent of them receive a liberal education in their youth. Ward concludes from extensive studies along this line that, whereas we now develop about 2 geniuses for every 100,000 of the population, if all were given an equal chance to develop, we might produce 200 geniuses to every 100,000 of the population. Carlyle's saying that " the history of the world is the biography of great men," is still largely true.

The United States sought to make education equally available to all through a system of free, public schools. Acting upon the principle that " the wealth of the nation should educate the children of the nation," the land was taxed to support public education. For the time being this was adequate and an unrivaled system of public education was built up which has more than justified itself in the great strides America has taken in every phase of development. But this system of free, public education is not equally available to everyone. In rural areas the one-room school with its inadequate equipment, inadequately trained teacher, and multiplicity of grades all thrown in together, still obtains in wide areas of the country, whereas the child born in the city has the best of opportunities for his grade school training. Similarly, the rural high school is narrowly limited in the curricular offerings it can give; in the special services of child guidance; health and physical examination and training; opportunities to develop latent talents in music and the arts; and suitable facilities for manual and vocational training. Inadequate buildings and equipment present serious obstacles in a large proportion of the schools. Since the city and industrial areas draw much of the population from rural areas, it is important that rural children have not only suitable training for rural life, but also much of the same training as is found most suitable for

city life. Moreover, there are still vast inequalities in our educational system in the matter of opportunities to give the physically handicapped, the mentally deficient, and the morally delinquent a chance to become self-supporting citizens rather than charges upon the public and private eleemosynary institutions. Again, as the recent report of the National Survey of Secondary Education has so glaringly revealed, there are certain racial groups in our country, particularly the Negroes in certain of the states, who are not given an equal opportunity to get adequate educational training. Consequently, these children often grow up unfitted to contribute positively to the building up of a stable civilization. They become a source of trouble and expense that might much better have been spent on their earlier training, thus avoiding these undesirable consequences. Finally, in too many cases even though the schooling facilities are accessible and nominally free, many a child cannot avail himself or will not avail himself of them to the extent that he should because the economic situation in the home is such that he is unable to buy books and necessary supplies or to dress with sufficient decency to feel at ease with his confreres. The expense that would be necessary to make provision for this relatively small number of cases is trivial compared to the bills society pays later for the support of institutions of correction, incarceration, care of the incompetent, and the like because people with just this background of undeveloped abilities and with feelings of resentment at the social injustice done them often become undesirable citizens.

The provision of equal educational opportunities becomes primarily a question of financial support. By organizing larger school units in rural areas and transporting students to these centers, much better schools and more adequate facilities can be provided, but the matter of expense is still a serious one. Potent arguments point to the support of standard minimum educa-

tional facilities through national taxation rather than through local taxation. In the first place the education of any given child is not solely the concern of that community in which the accident of birth places him; it is even more the concern of that ultimate community where the child as a mature citizen will spend his life — and in this mobile age approximately half the children born in any rural community will migrate to other and probably to much larger communities. Furthermore, that child's education is of concern to society as a whole and the nation at large in so many ways that it is not feasible to leave the matter of his educational opportunities to the exigencies of any given local situation. In the second place, the wealth of the nation is no longer merely a matter of the possession of land and goods, but is even more largely to be found in incomes, profits, and inheritances. These sources of wealth are unevenly distributed and concentrated in certain centers. Also, they are often of such an intangible sort that local and even state governments cannot adequately assess them. Thus, it is logically the duty of the federal government to tax the actual forms of our nation's wealth where they exist and distribute the income for educational purposes where educational needs exist. Since the educational need on the one hand, and the taxable wealth on the other, are largely non-contiguous, no less an agency than the federal government is able to re-establish the necessary contacts between the needs and the available income.

*Discussion:*

1. Cite as many arguments as you can to substantiate the claim that the United States should maintain a system of free, public schools.

2. List all the arguments you can advocating the opposite view and present refutations of these arguments against a free, public school system.

3. Show in detail what equal educational opportunities in the United States would involve in the way of provisions for education in your community.

4. Can the United States afford to support a free, public school system that actually gives equal educational opportunities to " all the children of all the people "? Give your reasons.

5. Can the United States afford not to support a free, public school system that actually gives equal educational opportunities to " all the children of all the people "? Give your reasons.

6. List the principles of educational sociology which support the necessity of a free, public system of education, offering equal educational opportunities to all.

*Sources:*

1. Briggs, Thomas H., *The Great Investment,* The Inglis Lectures, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., 1930.

2. Dewey, John, *Democracy and Education,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1916, Chapters 2, 6.

3. *Educational Sociology, Journal of,* Vol. 7, No. 3, November, 1933, entire issue on " Negro Education."

4. Finney, Chapter 26.

5. Judd, Chapter 2.

6. Kinneman, pp. 192–198, 375–379.

7. Mort, Paul R., " National Support for Public Schools," *Progressive Education,* 10:441–443, December, 1933.

8. Nylander, Towne, " Wandering Youth," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17:560–568, July–August, 1933.

9. Snedden, 21–23.

10. Todd, A. J., *Theories of Social Progress,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1918, pp. 505–534.

11. Tuttle, Chapter 31.

12. Uhl, Willis L., *Principles of Secondary Education,* Silver, Burdett and Company, New York, 1925, Chapter 1.

13. Waller, Chapter 3.

# STANDARDIZATION AS A FORM OF SOCIAL CONTROL

PROBLEM. *Do the standardizing agencies in education exert a beneficial or a stultifying effect upon educational progress?*

*Case:*

In the field of education, one of the most effective means of social control of schools is found in the various types of national, regional, state, and local standardizing and accrediting agencies. The tendency seems to have been for these agencies to become more and more specific in the nature of their standards and requirements. The following are excerpts from a check list of standards for evaluating the organization of high schools, such as certain standardizing agencies have been considering adopting for inspectional purposes. Apply the excerpts of the check list as given to a junior high school unit, evaluating the junior high school grades in terms of this check list.

### ILLUSTRATIVE SECTIONS OF THE CHECK LIST *

#### II. ORGANIZATION OF INSTRUCTION

A. Departmentalization, size of classes, and length of sessions. Check (X) each item which is true for the junior high school grades:

( ) 1. The usual number of different subject fields taught by a teacher is one.

* Orie I. Frederick and Raleigh Schorling, *Frederick-Schorling Standardized Check List for the Organization of Junior High School Grades,* The Ann Arbor Press, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1933.

( ) 2. The usual class in recitation subjects enrolls more than 20 pupils.
( ) 3. The school year, exclusive of holidays and vacations, is more than 180 days.
( ) 4. The usual length of class periods, exclusive of time for passing of classes, is more than 40 minutes.

B. Use of standardized tests of intelligence in junior high school grades. Check (X) each purpose for which standardized intelligence tests are employed either alone or in connection with other measures:
( ) 1. For assigning pupils to grade or class sections.
( ) 2. For assigning pupils to specialized subjects or curricula.
( ) 3. For research and experimentation.
( ) 4. For evaluation of teaching efficiency.
( ) 5. For diagnosis of difficulties in learning.

C. Use of standardized tests of achievement in junior high school grades. Check (X) each purpose for which standardized achievement tests are employed either alone or in connection with other measures:
( ) 1. For assigning pupils to grade or class sections.
( ) 2. For assigning pupils to specialized subjects or curricula.
( ) 3. For research and experimentation.
( ) 4. For evaluation of teaching efficiency.
( ) 5. For diagnosis of difficulties in learning.

D. Special features of organization in junior high school grades. Check (X) each special provision for individual differences of pupils which is employed:
( ) 1. Homogeneous or ability grouping.
( ) 2. Scientific study of problem cases.
( ) 3. One or more special techniques for the individualiza-

tion of instruction (e.g., differentiated assignments, contract plan, etc.).

( ) 4. One or more special techniques for the socialization of instruction (e.g., socialized recitation, group-project method, etc.).

( ) 5. Grouping according to specialized curricula.

( ) 6. Special provisions for slow pupils (e.g., opportunity or remedial classes or individual coaching of slow pupils). Do not check if it is a part of item 1 above.

## VI. EXTRACURRICULAR PROGRAM

A. General scope of the extracurricular program. Check (X) each type of activity in which junior high school pupils actively engage:

( ) 1. General pupil participation in school government.

( ) 2. School publications.

( ) 3. Home-room organizations.

( ) 4. Club activities (not including required "Study Clubs").

( ) 5. Assemblies conducted by pupils.

( ) 6. Extracurricular musical organizations.

B. General policies with respect to the extracurriculum in the junior high school grades. Check (X) each statement which applies:

( ) 1. Funds derived from certain non-athletic activities are used to support other non-athletic activities.

( ) 2. Three or more periods in the weekly schedule are reserved for extracurricular activities.

( ) 3. Participation is controlled.

C. Pupil participation in school government. (Omit section "C" if not applicable.) Check (X) each statement which applies in the junior high school grades:

( ) 1. Certain powers and duties of the pupil organization are determined by the pupils, without restriction by the faculty.

( ) 2. Certain powers and duties of the pupil organization are proposed by the faculty, subject to acceptance by the pupils.

( ) 3. The pupil organization actively engages in treatment of disciplinary problems (e.g., insubordination, truancy, tardiness, stealing, etc.).

( ) 4. The pupil organization actively engages in maintaining order (e.g., in corridors, streets, school grounds, classrooms, etc.).

( ) 5. The pupil organization actively promotes health, thrift, or beauty of school building or grounds.

( ) 6. The pupil organization actively promotes scholarship in curricular work.

( ) 7. The pupil organization actively promotes clubs, school social affairs, or introduction of new pupils.

( ) 8. The pupil organization actively promotes school publications or publicity in the community at large.

D. Club activities. (If no club activities are conducted in the junior high school grades, omit section " D.") Check (X) each type of club in active existence this year in the junior high school grades:

( ) 1. Academic or " hobby " (Latin, science, airplane, travel, etc.).

( ) 2. Purely social.

( ) 3. Civic or ethical (leaders, courtesy, " good turn," etc.).

## VII. SUPERVISION

A. Agencies of supervision. Check (X) each agency of supervision which has been employed in the junior high school grades during the past year:

( )  1. Departmental meetings.
( )  2. Systematic examination of new textbooks.
( )  3. Classroom visitation by special supervisors (including department heads).
( )  4. Individual conferences between teachers and special supervisors (including department heads).
( )  5. Demonstration teaching.
( )  6. Self-survey of school.
( )  7. Revision of curriculum.
( )  8. Rating of teachers by supervisors.
( )  9. Self-rating by teachers.
( ) 10. Emphasis on extension or correspondence study by teachers.
( ) 11. Emphasis on summer study by teachers.

*Discussion:*

1. Indicate any items in the above check list which you feel would hamper more than help a school if required of it. Justify your contentions.

2. In the light of weaknesses you may have found revealed by these check items, show how specific standards and regulations may be justified as a device for keeping schools up to efficiency levels.

3. Define " social controls." What methods of social control over educational efficiency are operating in other ways to insure educational progress? What is the relative effectiveness of each control which you have listed?

4. Criticize the check list as a device for measuring the adequacy of social institutions. Describe any alternative methods of evaluating social institutions that you may think are preferable.

5. Justify upon the basis of sociological principles the control of schools which is exercised by state authorities.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 7, section 38.

2. Edmonson, J. B., Roemer, Joseph, and Bacon, Francis L., *Secondary School Administration,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1931, Chapter 27.

3. Finney, Chapter 14.

4. Judd, Chapter 3.

5. Kinneman, Chapter 25.

6. Reeves, Floyd W., " A New Type of Standard and Its Explication Relative to Administration," *North Central Association Quarterly,* 8:261–270, September, 1933.

7. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 13.

8. Zook, George F., " Some Issues Involved in the Revision of Standards and Accrediting Procedures," *North Central Association Quarterly,* 8:235–248, September, 1933.

## EDUCATIONAL COSTS

PROBLEM. *Are the " mounting educational costs " in the United States for the support of free, public education exorbitant?*

*Case:*

Of all the public taxes levied by local government, the school tax more than any other is apt to be paid the most grumblingly. In any period of depression, public economies are apt to hit school expenditures before any other public expenditures, and to hit these most severely. The following facts regarding the demands for and cost of public education reveal some aspects of the actual situation.

| Item | 1920 | 1928 | 1930 | 1934 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Enrollments: Elementary and Secondary .. | 15,503,110 | 25,179,676 | 25,678,015 | 26,353,000 |
| Enrollments in Public High Schools . ..... | 519,251 | 3,911,279 | 4,399,422 | 5,461,000 |
|  | *1926* |  |  |  |
| Total Educational Expenditures ..... | $2,026,308,190 | $2,184,000,000 | $2,316,790,384 | $1,753,300,000 |
| Per Capita Cost ... .. | $81.90 | $86.75 | $90.22 | $66.53 |
| Number Teachers, Principals, and Supervisors | 831,078 | 854,230 | 880,305 | 840,000 |
| Average Salary of Teachers, Principals, and Supervisors. .... | $1,277 | $1,364 | $1,420 | $1,050 |
| Capital Outlay ...... | $411,037,774 | $382,996,156 | $370,877,969 | $96,600,000 |

Figures for 1929 as to the amounts of money spent annually by the citizens of the United States on various items, expressed in approximate billions of dollars, are as follows:

1. Public elementary, secondary, and collegiate
   education ............................. 2.25 billions
2. Life insurance .......................... 3.1   "
3. Certain luxuries ........................ 6.4   "
4. Building construction ................... 7.1   "
5. Passenger automobiles ................... 12.5   "

*Discussion:*

1. What is a " social institution " ? Is the school a social institution ? Why ? What is society's responsibility towards the school ?

2. Prepare a table showing the percentages of increase or decrease in each of the seven items listed, between 1920 (or 1926) and 1935. Draw a graph showing the percentages of increase or decrease in school enrollment and teachers supplied for the years 1926, 1928, 1930, and 1935. (The total public school enrollment for 1926 was 24,741,468.) Add any reliable but more recent data you can find for any of the items listed in the table.

3. What is the origin of our present method of school support? What are its advantages or disadvantages? Name and evaluate the newer methods of taxation suggested for obtaining more adequate support of public education.

4. List the more important causes at work bringing about increases in total school costs.

5. What is meant by the " economic surplus " ? How is America's economic surplus being used ?

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 7, section 34.
2. Finney, Chapters 22, 26.

3. Judd, Chapter 6.

4. Research Bulletin of the N. E. A., *Current Conditions in the Nation's Schools,* National Education Association, Vol. XI, No. 4, November, 1933, Washington, D. C.

5. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 251–265, 482–489, 572–579.

# THE SCHOOL FINANCE CHARTER

PROBLEM. *What are the basic considerations in providing for an adequate program for the financing of public education?*

*Case:*

The National Conference on the Financing of Education which met in New York City, July 31 to August 11, 1933, issued the following " School Finance Charter."

### ESSENTIALS OF A MODERN SCHOOL FINANCE PROGRAM

Believing that the financing of the schools is a paramount public concern, basic to the present and future welfare of our democracy, the following is offered for action by the American people.

*Universal Education.* Funds to provide every child and youth a complete educational opportunity from early childhood to the age at which employment is possible and socially desirable. This right to be preserved regardless of residence, race or economic status and to constitute an inalienable claim upon the resources of local, state, and national governments.

*Lifelong Learning.* Educational opportunities at public expense for every adult whenever such opportunities are required in the public interest.

*Effective Teaching.* In every classroom competent teachers maintained at an economic level which will secure a high quality of socially motivated and broadly trained professional service.

## Adequate Revenues

*Equitable Taxation.* For the adequate support of all government activities, including the schools, a stable, varied and flexible system, providing for a just sharing of the cost of government by all members of the community.

*Public Information.* Accurate, intelligible, and frequent reports to taxpayers and the public on the management of the school money so that complete understanding and constructive attitudes with respect to school taxes and services may prevail.

## Constructive Economy

*School Board Independence.* In every school system a board of education responsive to the will of the whole people and free to adopt and carry out truly efficient and economic financial policies for the schools.

*Economical Administration.* A uniform and continuous policy of honest, economical and productive spending of all school moneys.

## Local Management

*Adequate Local Units.* In every community trained educational leadership and other services secured through a local unit of administration large enough to make such services financially possible and desirable.

*Community Initiative.* For every school district the right to offer its children an education superior to state minimum standards and to seek and develop new methods intended to improve the work of the schools.

## State Responsibility

*Equalization of Educational Opportunity.* For every school district sufficient financial support from the state to permit the

maintenance of an acceptable state minimum program of education and to relieve the local property tax, when this tax, upon which local initiative depends, is carrying an unfair share.

*Professional Leadership.* Competent leadership in every state department of education so that reasonable minimum financial standards may be established and educational progress encouraged throughout the state.

*Fiscal Planning.* In every state a long-time financial plan for public education, comprehensive in scope, based on experienced judgment and objective data, co-operatively developed, continually subject to review and revision, and reflecting faithfully the broad educational policy of the people.

### NATIONAL INTEREST

*Open Schools.* For every child deprived of education by emergency conditions beyond the control of his community and state, immediate restoration of these rights through assistance from the Federal Government to the state concerned.

*Federal Support.* Sufficient federal support for the schools of the several states to protect the nation's interest in an educated citizenship, without Federal control over state and local policies.

*If America is to recover Prosperity and Persist As a Democratic Nation these Essentials must be Provided.*

*Discussion:*

1. List under each of the separate divisions of the charter some of the outstanding implications of the tenet as it would work out for the organization and support of education, particularly noting any important changes from our present system.

2. What are the chief obstacles to immediate realization of the ideals for educational support as outlined above? Classify under such headings as economic, governmental, social, traditional, and personnel.

3. List the most serious objections you can find to the implementation of the provisions for educational support and organization proposed. Answer these objections.

4. For each of the divisions of this charter, list principles of educational sociology that could be brought to the support and justification of the viewpoint involved.

*Sources:*

1. Barrow, Edward M., "Why Cities are Bankrupt," *Survey-Graphic,* 22:560–561, 573–576, November, 1933.

2. Briggs, Thomas H., *The Great Investment,* The Inglis Lecture, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1930.

3. Finney, Chapter 26.

4. Judd, Chapter 6.

5. Kinneman, pp. 107–108.

6. Kulp, p. 73.

7. Merriam, C. E., "Government and Society," *Survey-Graphic,* 22:33–36, January, 1933.

8. Mort, Paul R., "National Support for Public Schools," *Progressive Education,* 10:441–443, December, 1933.

9. National Education Association Research Division, *Emergency Federal Aid for Education,* April, 1934.

## THE SELECTION OF TEACHERS

PROBLEM. *What are the best procedures for securing new teachers?*

*Case:*

Floyd M. was a man of dynamic personality and often able to carry out his plans in spite of possible opposition, by the simple expediency of avoiding crises until the matter was a *fait accompli.* When he was elected to a new superintendency of schools and learned that there were two teaching vacancies also to be filled, he went to the school board and asked if he might recommend candidates for the positions. Being permitted to do so, he took some time to visit and interview possible candidates personally until he had two or three good alternative candidates for each position. Later when he presented to the school board a small bill for travel expenses, the members were outraged at the idea. The treasurer was particularly incensed and declared, " Why, I can get all the candidates we want by using penny postal cards."

Having gotten things well organized for the new year, the new superintendent returned to his home for a few days before moving permanently to the new location. In the meantime, a grade teacher resigned and the school board decided to fill the vacancy without notifying the new superintendent. " Penny postals " were used and a large number of applications received. One lady of uncertain age and magnetic personality followed her application immediately with a personal visit to

the town and to each member of the board. She obtained the position.

Upon the opening of school, Floyd M. was not at all pleased with what had happened, and less so when he met the new teacher, though he made no trouble over it. At the party given the second week of school to the new and old teachers, board members and teachers were all present. At the bridge table, the new teacher of uncertain age and magnetic personality was partner to the school treasurer of penny postal card proclivities. After she had twice asked him to shuffle and deal the cards for her, he observed what before he had not seen — that she had a false hand. Later it was discovered that she was married, although it was against the rules of the school board to hire married women teachers. The lady soon evidenced a certain queerness in her actions at times which became increasingly annoying until, before the end of the term, she had to be taken to an institution for observation and treatment.

*Discussion:*

1. What part should the board of education and the superintendent of schools respectively take in the selection of new teachers? What is the particular responsibility of each?

2. Indicate the functions of " professional leadership " which the school board should expect of the superintendent. Show by illustration how these are frequently usurped.

3. From the standpoint of the community, what role should the school board play in the management of the schools? Whence comes its authority? What limits its role of administration?

4. Outline an ideal procedure for a school board in the selection of a new superintendent of schools in a community with a population under 5,000.

5. List the principles of educational sociology that should

help to define clearly the relative duties and responsibilities of the school board and the school superintendent in the administration of the public schools.

*Sources:*

1. Counts, George S., *The Social Composition of Boards of Education,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1927.

2. Lewis, E. E., *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff,* Chapter VII. The Century Company, New York, 1926.

3. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, *The School Board Member,* Vol. XI, No. 1, January, 1933.

4. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, *Administrative Practices affecting Classroom Teachers,* Part I: " The Selection and Appointment of Teachers," Vol. X, No. 1, January, 1932.

5. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 494–504.

6. Waller, Chapter 8.

## A CODE FOR SUPERVISORS

PROBLEM. *How can supervision be socialized?*

*Case:*

Supervision has come into disrepute among sociologists and educators because it has not taken on the social attitudes of co-operation and participation. It has been regarded as an administrative function to be used by an executive officer to determine teacher efficiency, promotion, salary increase, and tenure. In many school systems its function is improvement of instruction by noting and trying to improve teacher method and procedure. Thus it has come to be regarded by many as something imposed by the administrators in an autocratic manner without regard to the wishes of the teachers.

It is believed that supervision can be made to serve its function more completely if it can be socialized. It can be improved by bringing the supervisor and the teacher into a closer relationship. It is suggested that this can be accomplished if the supervisor and teacher agree on a code of procedure which is primarily social in nature. The following points are suggested for incorporation in the code of procedure which should serve as a basis of understanding for teacher and supervisor.

### A Supervisor-Teacher Working Agreement

1. The teacher and supervisor will share the responsibility for improving instruction.

2. The teacher and supervisor are friends, sympathetic, open-minded, and objective in viewpoint.

3. The supervisor and teacher will be frank in discussion and will be concerned, primarily, with pupil growth and welfare.

4. The supervisor and teacher will exchange suggestions relative to the improvement of instruction.

5. The supervisor will visit the classroom as a friend and be received by the teacher as a friend.

6. The supervisor and teacher will exchange views on supervision and teaching.

7. The supervisor and teacher will respect each other's confidence.

8. The supervisor and teacher will not discuss each other's deficiencies with other teachers and supervisors.

9. The supervisor and teacher, when doubtful procedures are under consideration, will study the procedures co-operatively.

10. The supervisor and teacher will base their conclusions on objective data.

11. The supervisor and teacher must be concerned with the social objectives and must be conscious of social problems.

12. The teacher and supervisor must be interested in each other, not only as professional agents of the schools but as human beings interested in social progress and development.

The importance of socializing the supervisory process in our schools is twofold. In the first place, it is essential in order to obtain the best immediate results where changes in or modifications of teaching procedures are necessary. When the supervision is a co-operative undertaking the teachers accept the same goal of improved teaching towards which the supervisor is striving. Also, having accepted this goal, the teachers assume a co-operative share in the responsibility of attaining this goal. Thus friction and misunderstanding are eliminated, unanimity

of purpose and effort is established, and successful attainment of improved teaching technique is more readily assured.

There is a second important reason why the supervisory process should be thoroughly socialized. Supervision is, in effect, teaching. A master teacher is instructing a cadet teacher or a less experienced or less well prepared teacher how to teach more effectively. If the procedure is well socialized, it offers the teachers being supervised not only correctional instruction but, more important, an actual example of how teaching can actually be socialized. There is inevitably a carry-over to the teachers own teaching situation, of the inspiration and the technique of making learning situations socialized, co-operative procedures. This is often a more valuable outcome than is the actual instruction which the teachers may have received from the supervisors.

A clearly defined code outlining how teachers and supervisors can best proceed under a socialized learning situation then is essential for the purpose of improved supervision and is essential also as a help or guide for the teacher later on when she is considering the socialization of her teaching situation.

*Discussion:*

1. Criticize the code outlined above, pointing out its strong and weak points.

2. Show how successful supervision is dependent upon principles of sociology.

3. Analyze a case of teacher-supervisor friction and show how it might have been avoided if the principles of sociology had been followed.

4. Define sociologically such terms as: social distance, conflict, personality, dominance. Indicate the part each plays in educational supervision.

5. What are the sociological considerations basic to a successful conference between teacher and supervisor?

6. Work out a check list for observing the strong and weak points of a teacher's social organization and relationships in the class period.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 5, sections 22, 25, 26; Chapter 1, section 7; chapter 6, section 29; Chapter 7, section 37.

2. Burton, William H., *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching,* D. Appleton & Company, New York, 1923, Chapters 14–18.

3. *Educational Sociology, Journal of,* Vol. 5, No. 9, May, 1932. Various articles on supervisory practices.

4. Kyte, George C., *How to Supervise,* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1930, Chapters 6, 7.

5. Peters, p. 258.

6. Ross, Chapters 11, 13, 15, 28.

7. Waller, Chapters 22, 23.

## SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL PROCEDURES — DISCIPLINE

D ISCIPLINE implies imposed authority. It has often been used as a means of punishment without regard to its sociological implications. Sociologically, discipline implies an end result of self-discipline and independence. Discipline is viewed as a process whereby the individual gradually develops his abilities in conformity to the ideals of the various social groups until he is able to differentiate individual and group responsibilities. Educational sociology does not restrict discipline to the low planes of force and personal domination but elevates it to the higher planes of social pressure and self-control.

There is a sociology of discipline. What possible effects does it have on children? Does it contribute to the socialization of children? How can it be administered as a process and social ends be attained?

Lack of self-control and the inability of the teacher to guide children properly to the highest level of discipline often results in uncontrollable crowd situations. One speaker has no difficulty in guiding a group of listeners as he wishes while another speaker may be forced to stop speaking because of crowd behavior. One teacher has no trouble in getting group attention while another finds her room a riot of noise and confusion. Those having no difficulties with the group are, consciously or unconsciously, following correct educational and sociological principles. There is crowd behavior in the schoolroom as there

is crowd behavior on the street. Many of the stimuli calling out crowd behavior are present in both situations. The sociological characteristics of suggestibility, impulsiveness, cruelty, and emotionalism are common to both groups. The sociological controls of prestige, good humor, enlisting support of leaders, and controlling the social environment are the same for both groups. School and group discipline are conditioned by a knowledge of crowd behavior.

One need not be at the mercy of the crowd, nor yet control it through an enforced discipline imposed by personal authority. We know that certain measures can be taken properly to direct and guide to the higher levels of behavior. We know that there can be no control without the medium of language. We cannot have adequate social or civil control of a group without the aid of a common language. Control and discipline are dependent upon the communication of ideas, words convey ideas, ideas make concepts possible, concepts make social thinking possible. Without a common language we have a " tower of Babel " crowd behavior, and finally social chaos. With a common language in which to express our ideas and concepts we have social orderliness and progress. Language, therefore, is the foundation upon which we build social controls.

Discipline can be extended to the highest planes — social pressure and self-control. If this is to be done in the school those in authority must provide training in civic leadership, and the students must participate in the work of maintaining discipline of a high order. Much of our social training must come from primary and secondary groups — those face to face groups which mold us. What is the sociology of the student council? Does it achieve its purpose of developing self-control? How effective is the school in developing civic leaders?

At present, do you understand the sociology of discipline? Do you have a clear idea of the planes of discipline? Do you

understand crowd behavior, its characteristics, and means of control? Have you ever thought of language as necessary to a proper understanding of group life and behavior? How much of the work of student councils culminates in constructive social attitudes? Do schools educate socially-minded leaders?

The problems in this section will answer these questions. The materials studied will introduce you to a very interesting phase of sociology.

## STUDENT COUNCILS AND SOCIAL CONTROL

PROBLEM. *What is the sociological importance of student participation in school organization and control?*

*Case:*
   A high school of approximately 200 students has organized a student council in accord with the following outline:

PURPOSE:
   1. To promote the general activities of the school.
   2. To unify all student organizations under one control.
   3. To improve the best interests of the school.
   4. To aid in the internal administration of the school.
   5. To develop an interest on the part of the students in democratic government.
   6. To develop respect for law.

MEMBERSHIP:
   1. All members of the school, faculty and students, shall be members of the association.
   2. The membership of the council shall consist of the following:
       Principal of the high school (*ex officio*).
       Dean of girls (*ex officio*).
       Council president.
       Four senior class members.

Three junior class members.
Two sophomore class members.
One freshman class member.

ELECTION:

Election to the council shall be once a year and be held on April 10. The president of the council shall be a junior with full junior standing. Other members of the council shall be nominated by petition signed by 10 per cent of the class membership. The petitions shall be filed with the class advisors who shall be responsible for the holding of all elections.

MEETINGS:

The council shall meet once every two weeks.

DUTIES OF THE OFFICERS:

1. The officers shall consist of a president, vice-president, and secretary-treasurer.
2. The duties of the officers shall be those as defined in Robert's Rules of Order.

POWERS:

1. The principal and dean of girls shall attend all meetings.
2. The principal and dean of girls do not have the power to vote.
3. The principal has the right of veto.
4. In matters of discipline the council has the power to recommend to the principal, but he alone has the power to execute.
5. All activities of the school shall be chartered through the council.
6. The council shall create all the student committees.
7. Changes in the constitution shall be in accord with Robert's Rules of Order.

COMMITTEES:

1. Courtesy Committee — to welcome and look after visitors.
2. Grounds Committee — to have charge of grounds and appearance.
3. Publicity Committee — to report all news items to the school paper and the local newspaper.
4. Lost and Found Committee — to maintain a central office to receive all lost and found articles.
5. Paper Staff — to have charge of the school publication.
6. Building Committee — to be responsible for the general comfort and neatness of the building.
7. Assembly Committee — to be responsible for the assembly programs and announce the speakers.
8. Athletic Committee — to be responsible for the athletic program, which includes: admission and transportation, advertising, equipment, grounds, cheer leaders, candy sales.

*Discussion:*

1. Analyze the purposes for the council from the standpoint of social importance. What legitimate educational objectives are involved?

2. Of what social importance is student participation in the internal administration of the school?

3. Is the membership of the council made up in such a manner as to provide for the social development of the students in general?

4. Will the duties provided for the officers encourage social responsibility on their part and provide for the social welfare of the school? Justify your answer.

5. Show how the functioning of each committee will make the purposes of the council possible.

6. Evaluate the entire " set-up " from the standpoint of (1) socialization and (2) administrative effectiveness. What socio-

logical principles have been recognized and what ones ignored by this type of organization?

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 7, sections 33, 36, 38.
2. Finney, pp. 469–488.
3. Fretwell, E. K., *Extra-Curricular Activities in the Secondary School,* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1931. Chapter on "Student Government."
4. Johnston, E. G., "Student Government in a University High School," *Progressive Education,* 10:422–425, November, 1933.
5. McKown, Harry C., *Extra-Curricular Activities,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1918, Chapter 4.
6. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 319–320; 737–740.
7. Smith, *Introduction,* pp. 417–419.
8. Tuttle, Chapter 28.

## IMPOSED AUTHORITY VERSUS SELF-CONTROL

Problem. *What type of disciplinary control in the school makes for the best social adjustment of the individual?*

*Case:*

James's father died when the boy was only two years old. His mother worked long hours as a seamstress to give Jim every opportunity to make something of himself. Her work kept her away from home too constantly to permit proper training of her son. As he grew older, he ran the streets with bad companions who taught him many vices. He frequently stole money from his mother's purse, but was always so repentant that she never disciplined him. On the other hand, his school experiences were of a different sort. He was constantly getting into trouble with the superintendent who was a strict disciplinarian. Every encounter between the boy and the superintendent increased their mutual hatred until Jim became quite unmanageable in school. His tendency to steal increased, and it was believed, though never proved, that he was guilty of pilfering around the school. One day the principal upon returning to his office found his typewriter gone, some money taken from his desk, and other articles missing. Jim was immediately suspected and finally proved to be one of two culprits. He was sent to the George Junior Republic. Here he met very different treatment. Disciplinary control was entirely in the hands of the boys themselves. His tendencies to be a non-conformist were soon discouraged because of the social disapproval of the group. He

soon entered into the spirit of his new surroundings and became one of the most trusted and best liked leaders in the community. He was dismissed after a period of years and, following an early bent, went into the radio business. He now has a radio shop of his own and is looked up to in his own home community as a respectable and trustworthy citizen.

*Discussion:*

1. What are the sociological principles of discipline? In what ways did the superintendent mentioned above fail to utilize them?

2. Explain the differences between negative and positive discipline; between direct and indirect discipline.

3. What are the three different planes of discipline? Describe each. Upon which plane or planes did the school and the Republic respectively operate?

4. Describe the different important forms of punishment. Give an instance in which each might be justifiably used.

5. Discuss the sociological significance and justification for or against the use of rewards in school.

6. Outline what you consider an ideal form of disciplinary control for the public school and justify it upon the basis of sociological principles.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 7, section 38.
2. Finney, Chapter 21.
3. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 18.
4. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 29.
5. Tuttle, Chapters 35, 36.

## CROWD BEHAVIOR

PROBLEM. *How can the principles of sociology be utilized by the educator to control school situations?*

*Case:*

A prominent public speaker was invited to a high school to deliver an address at a combination Commencement and dedicatory service. In this community the Board of Education had placed in the school a janitor who was in effect their undercover agent. As a result they listened to his advice in hiring and firing teachers more than they did the superintendent's. The janitor disliked one faculty member who was a superior teacher and well liked by all the students. When the contracts were handed out shortly before Commencement, this particular teacher failed to receive an invitation to return. The student body sensing the real cause, caught the janitor one day and held him under the pump while they pumped water over him. The Board of Education at once retaliated by expelling the boys who had done the actual ducking. The student body as a whole then struck, refusing to return to school. The superintendent was able to persuade the students to finish their year's work and take their examinations. However, the feeling in the community was running very high and the superintendent warned the Commencement speaker that anything might happen at the exercises. When the audience had filled the auditorium for the exercises, the speaker, superintendent, and Board of Education marched out onto the platform. As soon as the Board of Education ap-

peared on the platform, over half the audience got up in a body and walked out of the hall. All the following year the superintendent had troubles of one kind or another as a result of this situation.

*Discussion:*

1. Show clearly the difference between an aggregate and a crowd. How does an aggregate become a crowd?

2. List the chief characteristics of a crowd and explain each.

3. Distinguish between crowd-mindedness and mob-mindedness. Show how each can be controlled on a sociological basis. Which characterizes the above situation?

4. Indicate the types of crowd phenomena which a successful schoolman must understand and show how he can master them.

5. Cull from public addresses which you have heard or have read four or five instances showing how the attempt was made to stampede the crowd through appeal to crowd-mindedness.

6. On the basis of principles of sociology, analyze the causes and the cures for handling the situation above described.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 6.

2. Cooley, *Social Organization,* Chapter 14.

3. Kulp, Chapter 13.

4. Martin, Everett Dean, *The Behavior of Crowds,* W. W. Norton and Co., New York, 1920.

5. Peters, Chapter 15.

6. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 14.

7. Tuttle, Chapter 13.

# LANGUAGE AS A MEDIUM OF SOCIAL CONTROL

PROBLEM. *The necessity of a common language for the establishment of social homogeneity.*

*Case:*

In a small Pennsylvania town of 2,500, it was discovered that coal was present in large quantities and of a type that made excellent coke. The project was industrialized and a large number of foreigners of a Southern European group were brought to mine the coal and man the coke furnaces. There grew up a racial community with its own language and customs, and with its own parish school where English was taught only indifferently. The foreign tongue was the dominant medium of all communication within the group. An influenza epidemic broke out in this group. Health officials were unable to make any headway in fighting the epidemic because all instructions and information had to be disseminated through interpreters. The people were largely ignorant and superstitious and did not yield to the efforts made to stamp out the epidemic. Hundreds died unnecessarily before the scourge was brought under control.

*Discussion:*

1. Explain specifically how language serves as a most important means of social control.

2. List as many ways as you can discover in which any school in the United States failing to teach its students a *mastery* of English becomes a menace to social welfare.

3. Show how lack of " similar mental capital " was an important cause of the situation described above. How would the possession of a common language have functioned to make such a situation unlikely if not impossible? How could English have most easily been made common to *all* members of the community?

4. Point out serious conflicts in thinking that were probably present in the above situation. How do ideals and customs which control social situations become current?

5. List as many social problems as you can discover that are involved in the above situation. Suggest educational means for their solution.

6. Make specific statements of the principles of educational sociology upon which you have drawn to answer the questions above.

*Sources:*
1. Betts, pp. 162–176.
2. Finney, Chapter 22.
3. Good, pp. 509–511.
4. Peters, pp. 29–30.
5. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 49–50.

## TRAINING FOR CIVIC LEADERSHIP

PROBLEM. *Does citizenship teaching in the schools eventuate in better citizenship controls in life situations?*

*Case:*

Arthur H. after his graduation from high school went into partnership with his father in the local hardware store. Just as he had been a leader in high school, so he was soon a leader in the community. He was much perturbed over the crooked politics in the town. Quietly he set about building up an organized opposition of the better elements until affairs not only began to show improvement, but he found himself looked upon as a political leader, who would " shoot straight." He was taken by surprise when his friends insisted that he head an opposition ticket in the fall elections, but he was even more surprised when, at the age of thirty, he was elected mayor of the town. His induction into office partook somewhat of the nature of a fete. His acceptance speech was, in part, as follows:

Although I feel overwhelmed by the honor and responsibility you are placing upon me, at the same time I do not feel entirely strange in this new position. Probably you do not realize that this is the second time I have been made mayor of our town. The other time was several years ago when, as seniors in the high school, we occupied the various town offices for a day as is still the custom. I was then privileged to be mayor-for-a-day. I entered my day's ex-

periences with a high sense of elation. I left terribly depressed in spirits. I later went to my civics teacher and told him of the inklings of corruption which that one day had revealed to me, and of the further conditions which I then believed to be true. He had always held up such high ideals of civic participation and duties to us high school students that I did not believe citizens could be so indifferent to the public good as ours were at that time. I'll never forget this teacher's reply to me.

"Arthur," he said, "if the school has succeeded in stirring up even one person to discontent with these conditions, our efforts at citizenship training will be worth all they have cost. You have to-day seen a vision of need. Some day you will be in a position to help wipe out these conditions — if you don't forget!"

From that day on I planned and worked, as you have to some extent realized, to bring about better citizenship in our town. I believe victory is near at hand. I ask your continued support and co-operation.

*Discussion:*

1. Define and explain the meaning of the community as a "primary group." How did this primary group relationship aid or hinder Arthur's project for better government?

2. What is the "dead-level-theory"? How did it operate in the situation described above? To what extent was Arthur a victim of this theory? Why?

3. Can there be any progress in a democracy where the mass rules? If not, why? If so, how?

4. What combination of social agencies is most effective in bringing about progress in a democracy? What is the special contribution of each such agency? Explain your answer.

5. Show specifically how Arthur's education met or failed to meet the requirements of Peters' blueprint of a civically efficient person.

6. Summarize the principles of educational sociology which you have used in the above discussion.

*Sources:*

    1. Bogardus, Chapter 5, sections 23, 24, 25, 26.

    2. Geiger, Joseph R., " Neglected Factor in Education for Citizenship," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 6:415–426, March, 1933.

    3. Good, pp. 401–404.

    4. Peters, pp. 109–128.

    5. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapters 6, 9.

    6. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 241–245.

    7. Tuttle, Chapter 19.

## SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL PROCEDURES — THE CURRICULUM

THE curriculum is the instrument used by the school to introduce the student to the experiences of the past. It represents the stream of culture which carries in its flow those racial experiences necessary to the development of a wholesome, integrated, and cultured personality. The materials making up that stream are often questioned. Some would restrict the stream to just those subjects recognized as academic or cultural; others would permit it to carry many subjects of a vocational and practical nature; others would control the subjects so that they would represent a highly selected and specialized character; others would liberalize the subjects, permitting the stream to carry any materials which would be useful to any individual; while still others would take a middle position and permit a combination of subjects.

The question of liberalization as against specialization is a very important one. The first view is concerned with a well developed citizenry and believes that a broad cultural education is essential. The second view also thinks of a practically developed citizenry and is especially concerned with the elements of time and space. Can liberalization be harmonized with the idea of specialization? What subjects should make up the curriculum? Does social intelligence depend upon a well balanced school curriculum?

The school has been assigned residual social functions. All those social functions not taught by other social institutions become the direct responsibility of the school. When institutions change in form and social functions there is a transference of responsibilities. The school, being the established educational institution of society, naturally is expected to assume many of these obligations. At present, there is a great deal of discussion relative to the family education, education for leisure, education for character, health education, and athletics. The family is in a period of change caused by a rapid industrialization of society and now often finds itself unable to maintain its own self-perpetuating skills and understandings. On the other hand, some persons expect the school to assume the functions dropped or being inadequately met by the home. Some of these social responsibilities can never be assumed by the school, but the school is obligated through its curriculum to furnish such instruction as will make it possible for the home to meet the new social changes. It must recognize that homekeeping and housekeeping are not synonymous. It must discover that homekeeping is a profession requiring definite training. It must see that the highest function of the home is a spiritual one providing moral and cultural nurture. The school curriculum must be socially flexible and provide subject matter which will meet the changed home conditions.

The home and the church have been charged with the duty of training in morals and character. There has been failure in many quarters and now some sociologists and educators believe the school must furnish instruction in character education. Of course, the school curriculum must provide for moral education since people are not born moral. This is further apparent because: (1) the home and church cannot instruct in morals without co-operation of the school; (2) education is the basis for intellectual action which includes moral action; (3) the school

as an educational institution is responsible for moral as well as educational outcomes; and (4) the school is responsible in guiding the child through our mores, folkways, and traditions in times of change in order that a proper sense of discrimination may be developed. All curriculum materials can be used in giving moral instruction, but the instructors must be made conscious of the moral outcomes desired.

The problem of leisure arises. A technological society makes leisure possible. What shall be done with that leisure becomes a problem of the school if it is to produce well balanced personalities. Training in school for future leisure-time activities is justified because: (1) many leisure-time activities have themselves become social institutions and should, therefore, become social and educational objectives; (2) culture — for which education is primarily responsible — is judged by its leisure-time activities; and (3) the school curriculum must parallel the demands of society.

Health as an individual possession and a group necessity has been recognized. Provision of facilities for instruction in and development of health is of recent origin. It now seems that the school is expected by society to teach health. Socially, this is essential if we would reduce the enormous economic and social cost of disease. As a phase of this program we are confronted with the social desirability of athletics and their total social effects on the individual and adult groups. What is the social responsibility of the school in providing such instruction?

In the formation of the curriculum one cannot ignore the effect of the mores and folkways. One's views on any subject, one's taste in art, literature, and dress, one's " moral conscience " are in fact but reflections of the approvals and disapprovals of society, which are in turn based on mores and folkways. Curriculum builders must take into consideration these mores and folkways. The successful educator will study them carefully.

After all the subjects have been finally collected, organized, and assembled, we have the curriculum. But how do we know we have included the right materials? How can we validate these curriculum materials? The educational sociologist proposes the principle of "relative utility." How can we test relative utility? One of the problems in this section is constructed around the principle of validation.

You will find the problems in this section practical, for they include vital social questions. The curriculum should be socially derived. It should recognize basic principles of educational sociology.

---

# LIBERALIZED VERSUS SPECIALIZED EDUCATION

PROBLEM. *Where do the values of specialized education in the schools reach the point of diminishing returns, and where do the values of a liberalized education appear most needed?*

*Case:*

Everett Dean Martin in his book entitled *The Meaning of a Liberal Education* makes the point that the concept of utilitarianism, in the sense of vocational specialization in our curriculum, perhaps too greatly influences our educational theory and practice. He illustrates from an experience he had as a student in college. He was riding up to the college campus with a farmer. As soon as the college came into view, the farmer expressed himself in no uncertain terms as to the utter uselessness of such an institution. He saw no reason why all those " young loafers " should be wasting their time learning Greek, Latin, and lawn tennis. The students were not exactly to blame, however, since the professors themselves were an impractical and incapable bunch of imbeciles. The farmer had just recently tested out one of these professors of Greek. This professor couldn't even tell him how many feet of lumber could be sawed from a log twenty feet long and twenty-three inches in diameter. Dr. Martin goes on to say that this is just the point of view of many people today. Even educators have fallen victims to the urge to load the school and college curricula with " practical " courses like scenario-writing, millinery, salesmanship, etc.

It might be that some colleges give credit towards a bachelor's degree for a course in paper hanging.

*Discussion:*

1. Show as clearly as you can the differences in point of view between the specialist and the liberalist in education. How would you reconcile these different points of view?

2. Would you classify Finney, for example, as a liberalist or a specialist? Upon what grounds do you make your claim?

3. Is the best type of social leadership brought about by the liberalized or the specialized educational training? What is the particular weakness and strength of each type of educational training? Support your views.

4. Show to what extent " civilization's intellectual resources " are produced either through the liberalized or the specialized curriculum.

5. Compare and evaluate critically the curriculum constants as they would be set up by Martin, Flexner, and Finney respectively. Outline what you consider to be the most satisfactory organization of curriculum constants for our modern society, and support your organization.

6. Put down in outline form the principles of educational sociology which might be brought to the support of each of the three contrasting points of view in question 5.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 3.

2. Day, J. Frank, " Education and Labor," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 4:625–633, June, 1931.

3. Finney, Chapter 18.

4. Flexner, A., *A Modern School,* General Education Board, Occasional Papers No. 3, 1921.

5. Judd, pp. 68–96.

6. Leigh, Robert D., " Twenty-seven Senior High School Plans," *Progressive Education,* 10:373–380, November, 1933.

7. Martin, Everett Dean, *The Meaning of a Liberal Education.*

8. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 26.

9. Snedden, David, *American High Schools and Vocational Schools, in 1960,* Columbia University Press, New York, 1931.

## EDUCATION FOR HOME MEMBERSHIP

PROBLEM. *The conflict between the personal interests and the sociological objectives of the modern family.*

*Case:*

All through his college career, Jack had a yearning to go abroad. So when the opportunity came in his senior year to take a position with the Standard Oil Company in Shanghai, he immediately accepted. The activities of the foreign colony in a port city of the Orient presented for him a happy mixture of club life, polo, golf, and social contacts which suited Jack's taste perfectly. After five years of foreign service he was returned to a responsible position with the company in America. But in the meantime he had met Grace, who had been considerable of a globe trotter and whose social interests were very similar to his. As they married and settled down to a domestic career, they talked over their future frankly and decided that the demands of a home were much overemphasized by many of their friends. They accepted the point of view of one of our modern philosophers who says that the home is no longer necessary because we are born in hospitals, eat in restaurants, entertain our friends in cabarets, theatres, and clubs, and are buried from funeral homes. From this point of view they saw no reasons why they could not establish a respectable home and still maintain their usual rounds of social activities. Their three children thus grew up with a minimum of attention from their parents, traveled with rather a " fast crowd," and took scarcely any advantage of their

many fine opportunities to make something worth while of their lives.

*Discussion:*

1. How can you uphold the attitude of this couple, and upon what grounds?

2. What are the fundamental weaknesses of the home as an educational agency today?

3. What are the major objectives of marriage? Justify your answer.

4. What contributions should the home as a social agency make to the building up of our modern civilization and culture?

5. What sociological principles are involved in the concept of telic education for family life?

6. What should be the essential elements in a program training for worthy home membership, sociologically speaking?

*Sources:*

1. Betts, pp. 59–67.

2. Finney, Chapter 10.

3. Smith, *Introduction,* pp. 70–81.

4. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 128–136, 140–143.

5. Snedden, Chapter 12.

6. Peters, pp. 284–290.

7. Tuttle, Chapter 4.

8. Van Liew, Marion S., " Homemaking Education," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 7:439–441, March, 1934.

## SOCIETY'S NEED FOR CHARACTER EDUCATION

PROBLEM. *Should the school take responsibility for character education?*

*Case:*

Over the short period of a few weeks, articles appeared in the *Literary Digest* with the following captions:

> " Gangland's Challenge to Our Civilization "
> " The ' Landlady Racket ' "
> " New Jersey's Beer-Gang Murder "
> " New York Vice Ring's Innocent Victims "
> " Capone's Amazing Proposal "
> " High Costs of Rackets Ruining Business "
> " Missouri Heads 1931 Lynching Parade "

There were other similar articles, but these serve to call to mind social conditions in the United States which constantly make front page news for our daily papers. The relation of education to these social evils is made more concrete by the case of fifteen-year-old Varner Corry, called by his teacher a " model pupil," yet who was sent to the penitentiary for killing a policeman in Chicago. An editorial in a local daily comments thus:

To be a model pupil one must have an alert brain and the ability to concentrate. " Model " connotes smartness, so that it can be taken for granted that Varner Corroy was smart. Unfortunately his mental development seems to have been lopsided. He could get good marks, but his sense of moral values was under par.

A good student ought to have good morals. But the two do not necessarily travel hand in hand. Knowledge and character may be two different things. Leopold and Loeb may be recalled as outstanding examples.

But there ought to be such a union. Theoretically, to be educated is to be cultured. But culture implies character.

Education is of doubtful value when it fails to embrace character development. Scholastic marks are ironical jokes when set against moral responsibilities.

*Discussion:*

1. Outline as fully as possible what is included in the concept of moral and character education.

2. Is a completely intelligent individual necessarily moral?

3. Attack or defend the contention that Varner's immoral conduct was entirely the responsibility of his parents.

4. Show how "social consciousness" is supposed to act as a factor in individual morality. Why did it fail to operate in Varner's case?

5. How might education have given Varner a working philosophy of morality?

6. Summarize the principles of educational sociology which, if effective in the school, might have saved Varner Corry.

*Sources:*

1. Betts, pp. 20–22, 181–191.

2. Bjarnson, Lofter, "Character Training in the Junior High School," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* 8:67–71, November, 1933.

3. Department of Classroom Teachers, "Character Education," *Seventh Yearbook, 1932,* National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

4. Department of Superintendence, "Character Education," *Tenth Yearbook, 1932,* National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

5. *Educational Sociology, Journal of,* Vol. 6, No. 8, April, 1933. Entire issue on " Juvenile Delinquency and Education."

6. *Educational Sociology, Journal of,* Vol. 7, No. 4, December, 1933. Entire issue on " The Penn State Experiment in Character Education."

7. Finney, Chapter 16.

8. Good, pp. 95–99.

9. *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* Vol. 5, No. 10, June, 1931. Entire issue on " Wholesome Living."

10. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 15.

11. Snedden, pp. 590–593.

12. Tuttle, Chapter 14.

## MORE LEISURE FOR THE WORKINGMAN

PROBLEM. *What can the school do to help society make a proper use of its increased amount of leisure time?*

*Case:*

Beginning in January, 1931, a large factory substituted four six-hour shifts for its previous three eight-hour shifts in all its factories, thus requiring an actual increase of over 400 workers in its factories. The minimum wage of four dollars per working day was maintained. These men now earn in one six-hour shift a full day's pay and have more than one-half of their waking hours left to do whatever they wish. This increase of leisure time for the workingman is becoming a common phenomenon in American industry, and makes the question of the proper use of this leisure time, for the benefit of society as a whole as well as for the individual himself, an acute problem of con-stantly increasing magnitude.

*Discussion:*

1. What is the sociological basis for determining what the educational objectives should be?

2. Upon this sociological basis justify training for recrea-tional activities as an educational objective.

3. Give a sociological definition of a recreational group. Cite instances of recreational groups on both the child and adult levels.

4. What is the sociological and educational importance of recreational activities?

5. List ways and means of improving community recreational activities so that they will contribute to a healthier and saner social life.

6. What are the most important principles of educational sociology involved in the above discussion?

*Sources:*

1. Betts, pp. 115–120.

2. Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 35, 1918.

3. Finney, Chapter 17.

4. Good, pp. 186–218.

5. Kinneman, Chapters 43, 44.

6. Kulp, Chapter 20.

7. Lundberg, George A., "Sociological Aspects of the New Leisure," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17:417–425, May–June, 1933.

8. Smith, *Introduction,* pp. 87–104.

9. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 155–175, Chapter 17.

# THE SOCIAL VALUES OF HEALTH EDUCATION

PROBLEM. *Why should the school assume the responsibility for health education?*

*Case:*

L. W. Rapeer in his book *School Health Administration,* Chapter 1, points out some very pertinent data regarding the health situation in the general population of the United States and the need for more attention to health education. He shows that many of the physical defects and much of the illness which incapacitates a large proportion of our population might easily be prevented by the knowledge and practice of simple rules of health and hygiene. Probably as much as 42 per cent of the deaths annually in the United States resulted from diseases that could have been prevented; as many as three million of our citizens each year are seriously ill from preventable diseases; also more hygienic living could add an average of fifteen years to the life of most individuals. In addition, most people are suffering from minor ailments which considerably lower their efficiency but which could easily be prevented. It is estimated that there is an economic loss each year due to these preventable diseases of about one tenth of the year's income. Others estimate that 25 per cent of all poverty and destitution are due to sickness.

*Discussion:*

1. Give reasons why an educational sociologist should be concerned about such conditions as cited above.

2. Show specifically how education might be so organized as to help materially in overcoming the above conditions. How far ought education to go in providing health service?

3. Evaluate Peters' " blueprint for vital efficiency " and show whether or not it would be feasible to adopt it as a guide to building a curriculum in health education.

4. Which would be the more successful in eliminating such a situation as shown above — Peters' blueprint or Snedden's objectives for physical and health education? Why?

5. How would the theory of the residual functions of education justify the organization of a school health program?

6. List the principles of educational sociology which would justify the inclusion of a complete health program in our public schools.

*Sources:*
1. Finney, Chapter 25.
2. Groves, Chapters 9, 10.
3. Kinneman, Chapter 17.
4. Peters, Chapters 6, 19.
5. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, Chapter 12.
6. Ross, Mary, " Shall We Afford Health? " *Survey-Graphic,* 22:143–146, 180, March, 1933.
7. Snedden, pp. 554–565.
8. Tuttle, Chapter 25.

## VOCATIONAL TRAINING ON SEMI-PROFESSIONAL LEVELS

PROBLEM. *Where can those needing vocational training on the semi-professional levels best obtain it?*

*Case:*

In one of the larger junior colleges in Michigan, the curricula offered are as follows: In addition to ten pre-professional courses leading to further study in higher institutions, the following terminal courses are also offered:

| | |
|---|---|
| Interior Decorating | Accounting |
| Commercial Art | Marketing |
| Public School Music | Finance (Banking, etc.) |
| Teacher Training | General Business |
| Secretarial Training | Nursing |

*Discussion:*

1. Define " cultural lag." Show how education may be guilty of cultural lag.

2. What developments in our modern civilization and the outgrowing sociological principles can be cited to justify our public schools in offering curricula like those listed above?

3. What definition of utility as a criterion for selecting curricular materials would be acceptable in the light of the principles of educational sociology?

4. What tests of utility should be applied to a curriculum for vocational preparation?

5. What are the sociological ideals for vocational education? Which ones of these would be met by the above type of curriculum organization?

6. In determining the courses to be included in vocational training, what four principles governing the concept of relative utility must be kept in mind? How would their consideration affect the content of the curricula suggested above? Illustrate by indicating subject matter materials that would be included or rejected in certain of the curricula upon this basis.

7. Upon the basis of what principles of educational sociology can vocational courses of a semi-professional type be justified upon the junior-college level?

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 3, section 13.

2. Eells, Walter C., *The Junior College,* Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1931, Chapter 18, " The Curriculum."

3. Finney, Chapters 5, 13.

4. Good, pp. 319–325.

5. Peters, Chapter 4.

## THE INFLUENCE OF MORES UPON THE
## CURRICULUM

PROBLEM. *Can the school curriculum be organized upon the basis of the best pedagogical principles or must it be modified seriously by local folkways and mores?*

*Case:*

  Mr. X went as superintendent to a rural community where the population was dominated by a foreign racial group. After he was hired, an influential board member took him aside to give him some advice as to how to administer the school. First, he should not be so foolish as to allow instructors to teach that " coffee soup " (bread or crackers soaked in coffee) is injurious to the health of small children. The board member himself had been brought up on that diet and his huskiness gave the lie to any such teaching. Furthermore, this attitude was taken by a teacher the previous year and she had been accordingly dismissed from the school. Secondly, this board member had studied under a curriculum where square root and cube root had been taught in the grades, and where English grammar had been taught by means of diagraming and the systematic study of grammar as organized in Harvey's formal grammar. He advised the superintendent in no uncertain terms to include these in the grade school curriculum for the coming year. Finally, any teaching regarding those newfangled contraptions — the radio and the airplane — obviously inventions of the devil, was most certainly taboo. Teaching obedience to

the laws of the country was all right providing some discrimination was made against unjust laws such as prohibition. All the families had wine in their homes, and, after all, such admonitions as Paul's " Take a little wine for thy stomach's sake " was a much better guide of conduct than ill advised state or national laws.

*Discussion:*

1. How do mores and folkways come to have such strong influence upon group actions and attitudes?

2. Show the educative influences in social relations operating through the principles of imitation and osmosis. Illustrate from your personal experiences.

3. How do community and education each in turn operate to modify one another?

4. How can social homogeneity in any civilization be realized in the face of the influence of local folkways on local educational agencies?

5. How can undesirable folkways and mores be modified?

6. With what important sociological principles concerning mores and folkways should an educator be familiar?

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 3, sections 14, 15.
2. Finney, Chapters 9, 15, 22.
3. Payne, Chapter 4.
4. Peters, pp. 36–37, 256–258.
5. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 70–73, 179, Chapter 9.
6. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 6.
7. Sumner, William G., *Folkways,* Ginn and Co., Boston, 1906.
8. Tuttle, Chapter 17.

## CRITERIA FOR CURRICULUM EVALUATION

PROBLEM. *To what extent should utility influence the determination of curriculum organization?*

*Case:*

The history of education in the United States shows us that the establishment of the Latin Grammar Schools in the early colonial days was in direct response to the need for training an intelligent ministerial leadership in the Puritan theocracy of that time — in reality, a vocational enterprise. It was not many years before the tendency appeared in the larger centers of population, especially in the seaport towns, to add to the strictly classical curricula of the Latin Grammar Schools certain more " practical " studies, such as merchants' accounts, navigation, surveying, and higher mathematics. But this did not satisfy the more progressive and so the academy came as a revolt against the impracticality of the classical curriculum, especially for those boys and girls not intending to go on to college. And before another century had passed, the English Classical School was established in revolt against the narrowness of the academic curriculum of the academy, and more particularly in response to the demands of the mercantile and merchant groups. Even since the establishment of the high school, later demands from various groups for more practical curricula have brought in, first, manual arts, then commercial subjects, the industrial arts, agriculture, and home economics. Thus, the accretions to and reorganizations of the high school

curricula throughout the course of our educational history have been largely in the direction of more practical subjects and as a direct result of popular demands of various citizen groups.

*Discussion:*

1. Define " utility " as a criterion for curriculum selection and organization. Show how it did or did not operate (as you have defined it) in the three types of American secondary schools described above.

2. Distinguish between absolute and relative utility. List and explain acceptable tests of relative utility. Show how these tests of relative utility helped to determine the curriculum development in the above mentioned secondary schools, or if they failed to operate, tell why.

3. Obtain some current course of study for high school or a syllabus of subject matter for a given subject, and apply these tests of relative utility critically, evaluating the organization.

4. Explain Peters' four further principles for determining the relative importance of curricular materials, and apply them also in your critical evaluation of the materials used in question 3.

5. To what extent do you believe the criterion of utility has been an important influence in the general development of educational content? Illustrate your answer.

6. Summarize the sociological principles upon which the concept of utility as a criterion of curriculum selection is based.

*Sources:*

1. Betts, pp. 243–247.
2. Kinneman, Chapters 19, 20.
3. Peters, Chapter 4.
4. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 10.
5. Tuttle, Chapters 23, 24, 26.

# PROBLEM 52

---

## THE SOCIAL PURPOSE OF ATHLETICS

PROBLEM. *To what extent are and should athletics be controlled to contribute to the socialization of students?*

*Case:*

School accrediting associations rule that athletics must be under the control of the faculty. The coach is to have the rank of a teacher and must be considered a member of the faculty. The athletic programs are to be in keeping with the types of schools and be maintained on a high level.

A high school was dropped from the membership roll of such an association because of a violation of these standards. This high school, located in a town of 40,000 people, had been successful in winning the state basketball championship. The town became enthusiastic over high school athletics and practically demanded championship teams. To meet this condition players were imported. One boy was brought from another state. The expenses of moving his family were paid from school funds, the father was placed on the school payroll, and the boy was paid a salary from the gate receipts. Other athletes were subsidized.

Upon complaint the accrediting association investigated and dropped the school from membership. This led to a reorganization of the school and both superintendent and principal were dismissed. The entire school system was disrupted and school efficiency disturbed.

171

*Discussion:*

1. What social effect would result from the paying of money to athletes?

2. Should accrediting associations have the power to interfere in such situations? Justify your answer from the standpoint of educational sociology.

3. Of what value are athletics in the social development of students? Are these attained under the present programs of athletics? Explain.

4. How should athletics be organized so that their desirable outcomes are equally accessible to all students?

5. Of what social value are athletics to the town or community supporting the high school?

6. What principles of educational sociology must be recognized in establishing the control of athletics?

*Sources:*

1. Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, *American College Athletics,* Bulletin 23.

2. *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* " Athletics," Vol. V, No. 3, November, 1930. Entire issue.

3. McKown, H. C., *Extra-Curricular Activities,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928, Chapter 14.

4. *North Central Association Quarterly,* Report on Physical Education and Athletics, 8:26–69, June, 1933.

5. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. II, pp. 925–939.

6. *Review of Educational Research,* " Pupil Personnel, Guidance, and Counselling," Vol. III, No. 3, June, 1933, Chapter 7.

7. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 27.

8. Waller, pp. 111–119.

---

# ORGANIZED ATHLETICS AND THE INDIVIDUAL

PROBLEM. *What are the social effects of athletics upon the individual athlete?*

*Case:*

The football, basketball, and baseball combination of Brown and Green was the glory of University Z. For three years this combination was synonymous with athletic perfection. Facing graduation both Brown and Green were disturbed by prospects for the future. A review of their college experiences caused them to condemn college athletics. They both felt that they had been sinned against because of a vicious system. For four years they had been advised to elect courses without regard to cultural value or possible contribution to the earning of a living. Now about to graduate, having collected the required number of hours and satisfied group requirements, they felt they had but little education. They were unprepared for any serious professional career.

They also felt that wrong attitudes had been developed. Since entering college their every want had been met by alumni assistance. They had had tailor-made clothes, given by tailors as advertisements to induce other students to wear the same brand. They had been paid commissions for merchandise sold as a result of the fact that they used specific brands. They had received royalties from companies using their endorsements. The receiving of these sums had developed expensive habits, which could not be satisfied for any long period after graduation, for their

reputations as college athletes would, after graduation, soon be usurped by others.

Brown had had a social experience which gave him a new slant on things. He and Green had been popular members of the city's younger social set. Dinners and social affairs in the mid-Western university town had to have either or both present. Society matrons had vied for their favor. Brown thought he was in love with the daughter of one of the town's wealthy men. She had encouraged him and led him to believe that she cared. He asked her to marry him and she refused. Later he discovered that the young lady found him amusing and interesting but not in the social class into which she must marry. He was shocked to discover that even his fraternity brothers had elected him, not because of himself but because he was a popular campus hero. He discovered that he was placed in a class below even the social entertainers, for they are paid for their services.

Faced with the question of their future these two reviewed the offers made for their services after graduation. Several coaching positions had been offered but they could not qualify for teaching certificates. It was true that they might fill assistant coaching positions in the university but the pay was small. They had been offered positions with insurance companies and with bond houses, but they realized that these offers were made because of their reputations as athletes and not because of their ability to sell. These companies would trade on their names and as soon as the public forgot them, they would no longer be of value. They considered professional athletics, but the picture wasn't a bright one. Risk of injury is great and the average term of service of play is brief. Every way they turned they felt blocked by their complete helplessness and the realization that they had been deluded victims. They had been sacrificed for the amusement of the crowd, the selfishness of individuals, the sup-

posed glory of Alma Mater, and the sporting proclivities of the alumni.

It is too early to report what the effects of this hero worship of Brown and Green will have upon their life careers. However, there is scarcely a college community where one cannot find at least one or two derelicts who are the victims of misguided college careers. Their time, their vitality, and their aptitude were concentrated upon making a reputation for themselves and their Alma Mater in the field of athletics. As a result they left college with no adequate preparation for meeting the demands of life. Had the money used to promote the program of intercollegiate competition in their college been used to provide a program of general physical development and intramural sports which would have reached every college student, these same individuals would have had all the good effects of a vigorous physical training, all the desirable stimulation of clean competitive sports, and would still have had time and energy left for that most important objective for which they presumably were sent to college, namely an education that would have prepared them for life.

*Discussion:*

1. Obtain the opinion of a number of athletes in your college as to the " system." Analyze your findings.

2. Is the " system " as vicious as depicted in the case study reported in this problem? Prove your position.

3. List all the sociological and psychological arguments you can supporting the " system."

4. What changes can be made in the " system " to make it socially desirable?

5. Can the expenditure of time and money on organized athletic contests to the exclusion of a broad and comprehensive physical education program for all the students be justified?

Explain your answer in the light of sociological principles.

6. List the social and psychological effects of the " system " on the individual.

*Sources:*

1. Brosne, Kenneth, " I Am an Athlete," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* 8:133-138, November, 1933.

2. Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, *American College Athletics,* Bulletin 23.

3. *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* " Athletics," Vol. V, No. 3, November, 1930. Entire issue.

4. McKown, H. C., *Extra-Curricular Activities,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928, Chapter 14.

5. *North Central Association Quarterly,* Report of the Committee on Physical Education and Athletics, 8:26-29, June, 1933.

6. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 27.

7. Waller, pp. 111-119.

# SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL PROCEDURES — TEACHING METHOD AND SCHOOL POPULATION

I F educational aims are to be directed toward producing economically efficient and socially adjusted members of society, then educational methods should be so socialized as to guide the pupil into proper intellectual and emotional reactions toward his fellows. The function, therefore, of socialized method is to bring about a readjustment of school methods which will make them dovetail more perfectly into social forms of actions and influences outside the classroom. The teacher before determining the method to be used in the teaching of certain subjects should carefully study the social values of the various methods under consideration. If the socialized recitation, as a specific technique, homogenous grouping, individual instruction, Dalton Plan, or any other similar technique is under consideration, it must be realized that the following general phases of educational activity are essential to the success of the method as a social instrument: (1) opportunity must be provided for group discussion and debate, from which come the most clearcut and best retained ideas; (2) opportunity must be provided for group association as the group is the most powerful stimulation for attaining and excelling; and (3) there are specific learning activities dependent upon group association such as suggestion, osmosis, and imitation. Do our teaching methods

provide for these essentials? Several of the problems in this section will direct your attention to the problem of socialized method.

A phase of the problem of method is that of guidance. The changes in our present civilization have brought new conditions making proper economic and social adjustment a more serious matter than heretofore. The school cannot neglect the need of giving guidance in choosing and preparing for life work. The need for guidance is evidenced by: (1) the necessity for the child to consider industrial and vocational information early in his course; (2) the fact that there are so many vocational misfits; (3) the fact that our social milieu is becoming increasingly complex; (4) the fact that differentiation between pupils' needs and interests are recognized; and (5) the inability of other social institutions to provide adequate vocational information and guidance. Here we see the close relationship between the school and social conditions. A social need arises and the school is required to instruct the young according to that need. What is the social need for guidance? What basic sociological principles are involved in a guidance program?

As there is a sociology of method so there is a sociology of school population and teacher personnel. We have agreed that the school is a formal social institution and that the curriculum is socially derived, but we often forget that there is also a sociology of pupil and teacher. The pupils are the raw materials received into a social institution to be prepared for a social existence. If the curriculum materials are to be scientifically used and the proper results achieved, some information relative to the pupils must be had. What are the social characteristics of our school population? What influence does the economic status of the family have upon school success? Are our schools democratic in providing an education for all boys and girls regardless of the social and economic standing of the parents?

What type of public schools should we have to meet the needs of a democratic society? Before a teacher can meet the social responsibility of directing, guiding, and developing American youth he must know the characteristics of the public school pupils with whom he is to deal.

Now we come to the teachers. Thorndike believes that any nation which permits its incapables to teach it and encourages its better men and women to feed, clothe, and amuse it, is committing intellectual suicide. Are we permitting the incapables to teach our youth? Another educator finds that many of our teachers today do not have the cultural background necessary to make the most desirable educators of youth. Is this true? From what type of home do our teachers come? Does teaching attract the sons and daughters of our professional, business, and cultural leaders? Does it make any difference what type of social background the teacher possesses? If you were outlining a program for the training of teachers, what would you include in the program? The answers to these questions will be found in the answers to the problems in this section.

## THE SOCIALIZED RECITATION

PROBLEM. *What are the important social values inherent in the "socialized recitation" that are not to be found in the traditional form of classroom recitation procedures?*

*Case:*

This occurred in a class in English in a junior high school in a city in Ohio. The children were giving oral book reports on outside reading. A student had complete charge of the class, the members of which were sitting in a circle. One by one the girl in charge called upon the various members of the class, who made their reports with varying degrees of success. Two or three times the leader, when considering upon whom to call next, looked hesitantly at Ivan. But Ivan always looked so wistfully pleading that she each time turned to someone else. Finally, every child in the group had been called upon but Ivan. Again the leader hesitated, but finally asked Ivan if he would give his report.

The look of discomfort upon Ivan's face was excruciating. Anyone could tell that he would have done anything else on earth just then rather than give his book report. He arose and stood ill at ease. He blushed furiously as he looked down at the floor. All the children had their attention riveted upon him. More than that — they all seemed to be almost vocally sympathizing with him. In each face was apparent a desire to help Ivan if only there were some way to do it. He started out halt-

ingly to make his report. How he did stammer and lisp! No wonder he hated to speak. Then he stopped and gulped as though he were choking. He looked about him. As he saw the serious and sympathetic faces all looking so intently at him, he took a new lease of courage. It seemed as though he could feel bonds of sympathetic help reaching out to buoy him up. He began again and did somewhat better. Encouraged, he straightened up his shoulders and spoke more distinctly. As he became lost in the story of the plucky dog he had read about, he forgot himself — forgot to stutter and stammer and was eager only to tell his friends the story that had interested him so much. He ended, having given an excellently clear and entertaining book report, and the whole class applauded him roundly. That was the beginning of a new life for Ivan. He soon found himself at home in this group, working and playing with them happily day by day. And his own growth educationally and socially continued rapidly.

*Discussion:*

1. Is the case cited above an example of a socialized recitation? Give evidence for your answer.

2. What are the objectives of socialized teaching methods? Show why they function more effectively than do traditional classroom procedures.

3. List and explain the social phases of the learning process. Criticize current methods of individualized instruction from the point of view of these social phases of the learning process. What values are lost in over-individualized instruction?

4. List as many different forms of socialized recitational procedures as you can and indicate the values of each. What values intrinsic in individualized methods are necessarily lost through socialized methods?

5. List both the advantages and the disadvantages of using

the group to socialize and to educate the individual through the informal relations and experiences met with.

6. Bring together all the principles of educational sociology you can find to justify the use of socialized methods of recitation. Do the same for individualized methods of recitation.

*Sources:*
1. Bogardus, Chapter 6.
2. Finney, Chapter 21.
3. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 19.
4. Smith, *Principles,* Chapters 28, 30.
5. Thayer, V. T., *The Passing of the Recitation,* D. C. Heath & Company, Boston, 1928. Part III.

## EDUCATIONAL TESTS AND THEIR USES

PROBLEM. *Has the case for intelligence and standardized educational achievement testing been established?*

*Case:*

Approximately half the states in the union now have state-wide co-operative testing programs of one sort or another which attempt through the use of standardized tests to take the measure of high school pupils' ability to continue their education or to enter various fields of vocational endeavor. Hundreds of high schools and numerous colleges are participating in the use of these tests upon their own initiative and independent of co-operative programs. Major organizations pushing the testing program on a nation-wide basis are the College Entrance Examination Board, the Educational Records Bureau, the Co-operative Testing Service, and the American Council on Education. Such testing programs as the Kansas Nation-wide Every Pupil Scholarship Test, the National Survey of English Usage, the New York Regents Examination, the Iowa Academic Contests, and the Ohio State University Intelligence Examination have extended their fields of operations far beyond their local spheres of influence.

These various testing programs have a few basic assumptions which are common to practically all of them. They claim that the results of their testing are more reliable than previous efforts to test ability and accomplishment because the tests are more scientifically constructed and because they have been " stand-

ardized" on the basis of such wide usage that the "norms" they have established provide reliable measures of scholastic aptitude or achievement more universally reliable and indicative. It is further claimed that the results of these tests, especially when used in conjunction with previous scholastic records, give reliable bases for judging a student's future success along scholastic lines. Further, it is felt that justifiably reliable counseling on the basis of this information can be given a student as to what is in general the best line he should follow in the determination of his future. Guidance programs have, therefore, evolved as a result, not only in individual institutions, but now even on a state-wide basis of guidance service, so that the leaders in this field are confident that they are justified in offering and perhaps urging this service in the interests of the students' future success.

One college, for example, reports that on the basis of this type of information it has been able to rank all freshmen applicants for entrance so that over a period of years 89 per cent of the freshmen ranking in the upper 50 centile have maintained a uniform scholastic average of "C" or better, whereas only one student in a period of five years from among those in the lower 15 centile has been able to make an average grade of "C." Another university has worked out a rather elaborate formula on the basis of aptitude tests and high school marks whereby it claims to be able to predict a freshman's exact scholastic average the first year in college, rated on a five-letter scale, in seven cases out of ten, and closely approximate the remaining. In trying out the formula on 756 entering freshmen, they picked 147 whom they said would not be able to maintain a "C" average, although they allowed them, for experimental purposes, to matriculate. One hundred and twenty-three of these 147 actually failed in their freshman year; six others withdrew voluntarily in their freshman year and three more in

their sophomore year; one dropped a year behind his class; eight hung on with slightly less than a " C " average; and only six out of the entire group, .79 of 1 per cent, remained and maintained a " C " average.

In contrast to the enthusiasm of the proponents of educational testing and the confidence they have in it, there are others who claim that the whole philosophy underlying the movement is undemocratic in its intent and unsound in its working. The instruments of testing are too uncertain in their measuring capacity to be so thoroughly relied upon. In fact, in the very nature of the case, since there are so many uncontrollable factors in human nature and since the characteristics being measured are so intangible, it is folly to believe that educational and ability testing can ever be reduced to an exact science. Further than this, even if the results were more reliable, it is unwarranted predeterminism for educators purely and simply to arrogate to themselves the ability to counsel students as to their future course of action by saying that this one should go on to college and that one should pursue the humbler tasks requiring less mental ability. The case is strongly presented by such critics of the movement as William C. Bagley in his book, *Determinism in Education*.

*Discussion:*

1. Make two lists of arguments, one for and one against the use of scientific testing of scholastic aptitude and achievement. What distinctions, if any, would you make between the tests of ability and the tests of achievement? Why?

2. On the basis of your lists in 1, what is your conclusion as to the advisability of using standardized aptitude and achievement tests?

3. What are the principles of educational sociology upon which you would base the position you take in 2? Do you find

any which argue against your position? How do you reconcile your position with these?

4. List as many other important factors as you can which go to determine a person's success in life aside from ability and academic achievement. To what extent does the ability testing take these into account? To what extent does the achievement testing take these into account? Be definite.

5. Give your arguments for or against the attitude that people must find their intellectual and economic level in society merely by struggling along without educational guidance until circumstance has determined their position. What are the implications for education of your stand on this question?

6. Does dependable leadership such as is indispensable to a democracy ever come from the "duller intellects"? Explain your answer together with its implications for educational testing programs.

7. Is high intelligence due to training or heredity? Explain.


*Sources:*

1. Bagley, W. C., *Determinism in Education,* Warwick and York, Baltimore, 1925. Especially Chapters 1 and 2.

2. Bogardus, Chapter 5, section 26; Chapter 6.

3. Cooley, pp. 60–65.

4. Finney, pp. 339–359.

5. Henmon, V. A. C., and Holt, F. O., "A Report on the Administration of Scholastic Tests to 34,000 High School Seniors in Wisconsin in 1929 and 1930," *Wisconsin University Bulletin,* Madison, Wisconsin, June, 1931.

6. Lindquist, E. F., "The Iowa Academic Contest: Its Purposes and Possibilities," *Bulletin of the State University of Iowa,* New Series, No. 577, December 15, 1930.

7. McConn, Max, "Educational Guidance is Now Possible," *Education Record,* 14:3–27, October, 1933.

8. Odell, Charles W., "Predicting the Scholastic Success of

Pupils," *University of Illinois Bulletin,* Bulletin No. 52, September 30, 1930.

9. Odegaard, pp. 1–6.

10. Profitt, Matis M., *State Guidance Programs,* Pamphlet No. 35, January 25, 1933, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

11. Reavis, William C., *Programs of Guidance,* Bulletin No. 17, 1932, Monograph No. 14 of the National Survey of Education, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1933.

12. *Review of Educational Research,* "Educational Tests and their Uses," Vol. 3, No. 1, February, 1933.

13. Ross, Chapter 14.

14. Segel, David, *National and State High-School Testing Programs,* Bulletin No. 9, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1933.

15. Waller, pp. 20–26.

## HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING

PROBLEM. *What are the social dangers involved in homogeneous grouping, especially for the child who goes through his whole school experience classified as an individual of inferior intelligence?*

*Case:*

Stanislaus came from Polish-Romanian parentage and was brought up in a very poor home. His clothes were always dirty and in disrepair, he was never clean in his personal habits, he never tried to please his teachers, and seldom put forth any real effort in any of his school work. He was always rated as having inferior intelligence and classed with students in the lowest ability group. He managed always to do well enough to be passed at the end of the year, however. He spent most of his spare time in rowdyism and in getting into trouble. He was constantly under the vigilance of the truant officer and the police. When he reached the tenth grade, he was assigned to a class in vocational English taught by W., who enjoyed working with " problem boys " and took an interest in Stan. The police officer told W. that he would give Stan just two more weeks and if he didn't straighten around he'd have to send him to the House of Correction.

W. wasn't having much more success with Stan than other teachers had had. One day he found Stan doing a freehand drawing when he should have been writing a theme. He said

nothing and let the boy finish his drawing. After class he called Stan in for a conference and discovered that he thoroughly enjoyed drawing and had a number of drawings at home which he later brought around for W. to see. W. took them to the art teacher who said they showed real genius. W. arranged to have Stan's course changed so that he could take considerable work with the art teacher. But first he told Stan that he was going to be associating with different people than he had been associating with and he would have to bathe regularly and keep clean, cut his hair and keep it brushed, fix up his clothes, change his manners and his way of talking. Stan eagerly promised to do all this, and followed instructions exactly.

The results of the experience surprised Stan as much as anyone. He thoroughly enjoyed the rapid progress and sense of success in his art work. Furthermore, he was determined that the other students and the teachers should like him. He observed their ways of doing things, of speaking, of caring for themselves, and of dressing. Although still poor, he was soon an attractive appearing young man. His truancy and rowdyism has completely stopped. He is now taking an interest in all his school work and has been put ahead into the normal intelligence group. His intelligence test score on a recent examination where he really tried to do well classes him as above average in intelligence. The sense of defeat and inferiority is replaced with one of success and joy in life. When the case was reported last summer, Stan had gone to work and was still " keeping clean " as he put it, and was looking forward to the opening of school. It has been a year and a half since the truant officer threatened to send him to the State Industrial School, and it appears that he has permanently given this officer the slip. There is now every reason to believe that Stan will develop into a desirable citizen and a valuable member of society.

*Discussion:*

1. List the socio-psychological elements of the above situation which (*a*) first caused Stan's defeat, and (*b*) later gave him victory.

2. Describe any case of which you know or which you can discover where continued classification as a mental deficient was unwarranted and was the cause of a social injustice.

3. List the benefits to students of lower intelligence levels of working with students of superior intelligence. What training is there in the heterogeneous groupings for the superior student?

4. Devise as many suggestions as you can whereby progress and assignments in a class of all levels of ability may be sufficiently individualized to meet the normal differences of the members of an average class. Compared to an ideal class organization of this sort, what are the advantages of homogeneous grouping?

5. What specifically anti-social traits may result in the case of either mentally inferior or mentally superior students who have always been classified in homogeneous ability groups in school? Illustrate as far as possible by actual incidents.

6. What are the principles of educational sociology that can guide us in deciding the relative merits of homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping in the schools?

*Sources:*

1. Alberty, H. B., and Thayer, V. T., *Supervision in the Secondary School,* 1931, Chapter 8.

2. Bogardus, Chapter 5.

3. Finney, Chapters 7, 21, 22.

4. Kulp, 367–371.

5. Priest, Pauline, "Concrete Evidence of the Effect of Ability Grouping upon the Happiness of Pupils," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* 6:15–17, September, 1931.

## THE AVERAGE AMERICAN TEACHER

PROBLEM. *What is the status of the average teacher in the public schools of the United States?*

*Case:*

A review of the more recent investigations indicating what the status of teachers in our public schools is, may be summarized as follows:

The percentage of teachers in elementary schools having had two years of college training, and the percentage in the high school having had four years of college training, is still very low. A large number of our public school teachers have not even graduated from the high school. Conditions show very wide variations between different sections of the country and between rural and urban areas. Many of the teachers specifically trained for a given field of work are teaching in entirely different fields. Many high school teachers are teaching subjects for which they have not had proper preparation. State standards for the certification of teachers, while improving, are still on the average far too low, and vary widely in different states. There is little or no agreement as to what professional courses are the most helpful in training good teachers. Many fields are oversupplied with trained teachers, while other fields are badly undersupplied, especially the rural schools. Even in the cities, salaries for elementary teachers are too low for efficient work and proper living conditions. The variation in

salaries for the same type of work is extreme between various geographical sections of the country. Median salaries improved until recently, but did not increase proportionately with the living costs. In times of depression, the school support and teachers' salaries are among the first items of public expenditure to be cut, especially in the smaller communities. The membership of the teaching profession is being drawn in increasingly large proportion from families of lower economic and cultural status than previously, a large number coming from foreign parentage and from the ranks of the workingman. Nor is the school making up this deficiency in its training of these new teachers. Although there are numerous excellent codes of ethics for teachers available, there is little evidence that these are generally operative in controlling teacher conduct.

*Discussion:*

1. Show how the largely increased numbers in the teaching profession has served to influence the social backgrounds of the average teacher. What is the sociological significance of these factors?

2. Evaluate the professional training of the average teacher both as to quantity and quality, and show its sociological significance.

3. Compare the salary situation of the teaching profession with other professions. What is the significance of this in light of the importance of educational leadership for social progress?

4. What are the factors controlling teacher tenure? What is the effect of the tenure situation among teachers upon their social usefulness?

5. Bring to class a code of ethics for teachers. What is the sociological value of these codes of ethics for teachers?

*Sources:*
1. Finney, Chapter 27.
2. Judd, pp. 80–83.
3. *Review of Educational Research,* " Teacher Personnel," Vol. I, No. 1, April, 1931.
4. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 13.
5. Smith, *Principles,* Chapters 21, 22.
6. Waller, Chapters 22, 23.

## THE TEACHER AND THE COMMUNITY

PROBLEM. *Are teachers " maladjusted transients rather than citizens? "*

*Case:*

An unusually well trained university graduate accepted a teaching position in a village high school. She had lived in a large city until she came to the village to teach.

The village was some distance from any large cities and, of course, the people were somewhat narrow in their viewpoint because of the isolated location of the village. The villagers were very religious and insisted that the teachers refrain from dancing, card playing, and smoking.

The young lady roomed and boarded with a maiden lady in the village. The home was nicely furnished and everything possible was done, in a physical way to add to the young lady's comfort. The landlady was a cultured person of good breeding, but very narrow in her outlook on life, believing it wrong to keep late hours, and that dancing, smoking, and card playing were children of the evil one.

The young teacher had been in the village five months, had found a number of friends, had been regular in church attendance, and was rated as a good teacher when trouble developed. One night some of her friends from the city came to see her. It was suggested that they drive out to a barn dance being conducted in a neighboring village. The young teacher agreed, thinking that no one would recognize her. They spent some-

time in dancing and she thoughtlessly smoked a cigarette on the dare of one of the young men in the party. It happened that there were several young people from the other village there who saw her dancing and smoking. They returned home early and told the story to the men loafing at the village store. One of the men hearing the story was a neighbor of the teacher. He immediately told the young lady's landlady who was terribly shocked. At eleven o'clock the teacher had not returned so the doors of the house were locked. Returning at twelve-thirty she was refused admittance and was forced to awaken a friend and spend the night with her. The next morning she was ordered from her boarding house because she had stayed out late, had danced and smoked. The news spread through the village and without doubt was magnified to the point that some thought her immoral. The situation became so unbearable that she was forced to resign.

*Discussion:*

1. Is a teacher free to do as he pleases outside of school and school hours? Why?

2. What are "mores"? To what extent must the local mores, folkways, and attitudes of the community be recognized by a teacher? Define "social distance." How did it operate in the case cited above?

3. What evidence do you find that teachers are "transients"? Is this a situation to be deplored? Why?

4. Discuss the statement, "Women teachers are our vestal virgins." (Waller, p. 45.)

5. What is the sociology of the community-teacher conflict?

*Sources:*
1. Beale, Howard K., "Dare Society Deny Its Teacher Freedom?" *Progressive Education*, 11:13–25, January-February, 1934.

2. Bernard, L. L. and others, *Social Attitudes,* Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1931.

3. Bogardus, Chapter 6, sections 29–32; Chapter 7, sections 35–38.

4. Brooks, Graves W., *Readings in Public Opinion,* D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1928.

5. Cooley, *Social Process,* pp. 243–245.

6. Good, pp. 225–226.

7. Hook, George, " The Teacher as a Factor in Civic Affairs," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* 8:538–539, May, 1934.

8. Kinneman, pp. 265–270.

9. Kulp, pp. 317–322.

10. Parks and Burgess, pp. 200–202, 435–436.

11. Waller, Chapters 4, 5, 6, 8.

12. Tuttle, Chapter 17.

# THE TEACHER AND HIS ADMINISTRATIVE SUPERIOR

PROBLEM. *What should be the relations existing between the teacher and his principal, his superintendent of schools, his board of education? Where does his allegiance end and his independence begin?*

*Case:*

L. K. worked his own way through college under difficulties, particularly since he had married before he finished college. He was consequently very anxious to obtain a teaching position as soon as he graduated. His wife had a close friend whose husband was superintendent of schools where a teaching position was to be open the following year. The position was offered to L. K. with the understanding that he would share the house occupied by the superintendent and his family and that they would divide the running expenses of the house. Since the salary in the new position was not large and suitable houses were not readily available, this seemed to L. K. and his wife to be a good arrangement, and the plan was agreed upon.

Upon settling in his new home, L. K. was asked to pay his share of the rent to the superintendent who would settle with the landlord. L. K. demurred and was allowed to pay his half of the rent directly to the landlord. It was later learned that the superintendent was already several months in arrears in his rent. Although the two men were supposed to share the care

of the furnace, L. K. actually cared for it twenty-three weeks out of thirty. In other ways, care of the house largely fell upon L. K. In school, he was assigned a heavier teaching load than other teachers, although it was his first year of teaching. He was instructed by the superintendent that in order to maintain discipline he should resort to corporal punishment freely. He did this in two instances. He was also advised not to pay attention to what the principal and certain other teachers might say as their advice was unreliable and they were apt to lose their positions soon anyway. Furthermore, he was expected to report to the superintendent whatever he heard or observed among the teachers that might show disaffection towards the superintendent.

L. K. soon found that he was cordially disliked by students, teachers, and the community, although he was trying earnestly to do what he considered his full duty towards them all. He determined to ignore certain of the superintendent's instructions, especially regarding the use of corporal punishment. Matters came to a head when the superintendent publicly reprimanded L. K. in front of certain students for not maintaining better discipline.

L. K. then began to consult with the principal, other teachers, and even had talks with certain of the high school boys. He recognized that his precarious position was due to a false understanding of the situation and to bad advice from the superintendent. When it became commonly understood that the superintendent and the teachers intimate with him would not be invited back the following year, L. K. went directly to the school board and asked if that meant him too. He was advised that they considered he had been misguided and they would hold the matter in abeyance. L. K. finally won the confidence and respect of teachers, students, and community, but had an open break with the superintendent. Even elementary instruction in social relationship would have enabled him to avoid this situation.

*Discussion:*

1. What are the ideal relationships that should exist between teachers and their principal, their superintendent, their school board members? Outline in detail, explaining any differences in case of different administrative superiors.

2. List the ill-advised actions of both the superintendent and of L. K. which led to the conflict in their relationships. What was the board of education's responsibility in the matter?

3. Analyze the above situation as to the socio-psychological causes of conflict involved.

4. Considering the best interests of the school children, to what extent should a teacher co-operate with the superintendent even though he has shown himself to be managing affairs badly? Does this apply also to relationships with board members?

5. List the principles of educational sociology that should normally determine the relationship between teachers and their administrative superiors.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 6, sections 29-32; Chapter 7, sections 35-38.
2. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 541-544.
3. Waller, Chapter 8 and pp. 188-195.

## THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF TEACHERS' FEDERATIONS

PROBLEM. *Do teachers have the social right to organize for their economic and professional protection and advancement?*

*Case:*

Teachers are being urged to organize for purposes of protection. One classroom teacher in speaking before a group of teachers in convention said in part: " We must organize unions and then form these unions into a Federation of Teachers. If necessary we ought to unite with the American Federation of Labor and the farmers to form a new political party. This is necessary for there is a movement on foot to wreck the schools and deny the children the right of educational opportunity.

" Next year many of the teachers will be without positions after investing thousands of dollars in preparation. Pay cuts are universal and the teacher is being reduced to an economic level below that of unskilled labor. Education cannot go on and meet the challenge of the present social situation if schools are to be cut, and in some cases entirely closed, and if teachers who are charged with the responsibility of social instruction are to be given salaries which permit only the lowest standards of living."

*Discussion:*

1. Do teachers have the social right to organize? Should they organize? What are the dangers of organization? Give reasons for your answers.

2. Should teachers unite with the American Federation of Labor or maintain a separate organization? Why are professional groups inadequate?

3. What real social purposes can be achieved by teachers through organization? Do the ends justify the means? Substantiate your conclusions.

4. Why is there social opposition to teachers' federations and teacher credit unions? Is it justified? Why?

5. What principles of educational sociology are involved in a consideration of the organization and contributions of teacher federations?

*Sources:*
1. Bogardus, Chapter 4; Chapter 7, sections 33-35.
2. Hoffman, M. David, *Status of Voluntary Teachers' Associations in Cities of 100,000 Population or More,* United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 36, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1930.
3. Kinneman, Chapter 27.
4. Kulp, Chapter 15.
5. Selle, Erwin S., *The Organization and Activities of the National Education Association, A Case Study in Educational Sociology,* Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1932.
6. Smith, *Principles,* 536-546.
7. Smith, *Introduction,* 290-292.

# THE EDUCATIONAL EFFECTS OF AN OVER-SUPPLY OF TRAINED TEACHERS

PROBLEM. *What are the causes, the social and educational effects, and the solution of the problem of oversupply of trained teachers?*

*Case:*

There is a school situated in a prosperous, Middle West farm community, with about 120 students in the high school. There is a board of education dominated for many years by one individual whose single purpose seems to be the reduction of the school budget. Because of his influence in the community, this individual has consistently managed to have a sufficient number of men elected to the board who agreed with him so that his policies have generally carried. In his program of school economy, his chief attack has been upon the salary budget, irrespective of the qualifications of the teaching staff. It so happens in this same state that a recent investigation of the supply and demand in the teaching field reveals that the state has each year been producing teachers faster than they could be absorbed, until there is an oversupply, according to this report, of approximately 4,300 teachers, or 64.6% of the net yearly production of new teachers. The board of education referred to has been responsible for a large annual turnover in its teaching staff, thereby avoiding the necessity of following any program of salary increases, and also thereby each year bargaining for new teachers in the overcrowded field. Thus, salary budgets

have been generally reduced each year. The consummation of this policy probably reached its high point this year when, aided by the added competition for teaching positions, they elected a completely new staff of high school teachers. Of the six teachers hired, only one had ever had any former teaching experience, and he had previously been teaching in a near-by junior college. The whole staff, from the janitor to the superintendent, were put on a "single salary" schedule, each being paid $30 per month for an indeterminate length of school year, and were given "contracts" which gave them no security of tenure and no promise of an increased remuneration if more money was made available to the school during the year. An inspection of the school revealed serious disorganization of the school administration, incompetent teaching, inadequate supervision of these new and inexperienced teachers, and a general disintegration of the morale of the staff and the student body, with consequent jeopardy to the whole educational process.

*Discussion:*

1. What sociological changes, such as population and industrial changes, influence the stability of the teaching profession? Show how each operates.

2. Show how current social changes have influenced teacher tenure and salary schedules. What sociological effects are certain to follow the instability of tenure and inadequacy of remuneration? Be specific.

3. Review the literature on supply and demand of teachers and show to what extent oversupply of teachers has succeeded in eliminating the incompetent and improving the general standard of the profession. Give specific cases from your experience to illustrate your conclusions. How do you explain this situation?

4. Has the oversupply of teachers tended to build up or

break down the morale or *esprit de corps* of the profession? Explain.

5. Review proposals of state departments of education or other agencies seeking to regulate the supply of teachers. Evaluate these proposals in terms of educational efficiency and social progress.

6. Draw up a complete program of teacher training, placement, standardization, and professionalization which would, so far as possible, eliminate some of the more serious sociological hazards which cause a demoralization of the teaching profession. Upon the basis of what principles of educational sociology do you base your program?

*Sources:*

1. Anderson, E. W., "Teaching Opportunities in 1931," *Educational Research Bulletin,* Vol. 10, No. 4, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

2. Anonymous, "Spasmodic Diary of a Chicago School Teacher," *Atlantic Monthly,* 152:513–526, November, 1933.

3. Bennett, Helen C., "The Little Red Schoolhouse in the Red," *Cosmopolitan,* 95:56–57, 163–165, November, 1933.

4. Cook, Katherine, *Financial Crisis,* United States Office of Education, Circular No. 10, Washington, D. C., July, 1933.

5. Cook, Louis H., "Taxes," *Country Gentleman,* 101:16–17, 71, November, 1931.

6. Cooper, William John, "The Crisis in Education," *Scribner's,* 103:129–131, February, 1933.

7. Elliott, E. B., *Supply of and Demand for Teachers in Michigan,* Michigan Educational Association, Bulletin No. 26, Lansing, Michigan.

8. Fisher, Dorothy Canfield, "A Child Cannot Grow Up Twice," *Good Housekeeping,* 95:17, 122, 124, 126, 128, November, 1932.

9. Knight, Edgar W., "The Scourge of the Schools," *Outlook and Independent,* 159:430–431, 443, December 2, 1932.

10. *Michigan State Teachers' Colleges,* Report of the State Board of Education, Lansing, Michigan, 1934.

11. Parish, Wayne W., "The Plight of Our School System," *Literary Digest,* 116:32, September 23, 1933.

12. Research Bulletin of the N. E. A., *Teacher Demand and Supply,* Vol. 9, No. 5, November, 1931.

13. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 504–513.

14. Smith, *Introduction,* pp. 270–290.

15. Judd, pp. 198–200.

16. Waller, pp. 61–64.

17. Williams, L. W., *Supply and Demand as Applied to High School Teachers,* University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. 26, No. 26, February 26, 1929, Urbana, Illinois. Educational Research Circular No. 50.

# THE DEMOCRATIC CHARACTER OF AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

PROBLEM. *To what extent are all children given an equal opportunity for suitable education?*

*Case:*

George S. Counts in his study entitled *Selective Character of American Secondary Education* offers the following table showing to what extent children from homes of different economic status persist in their school attendance.*

*Relation of Occupation of Parents to Persistence in High School. Number of Persons in the High Schools of Four Cities, for Each 1,000 Males Above 45 Years of Age Engaged in Several Occupations*

| Occupation of Parents | Number in Entire High School | Number in Senior Year High School |
|---|---|---|
| Managerial service | 400 | 68 |
| Professional service | 360 | 69 |
| Proprietors | 341 | 56 |
| Commercial service | 245 | 42 |
| Printing trades | 220 | 22 |
| Clerical service | 219 | 33 |
| Public service | 173 | 18 |
| Machine trades | 169 | 17 |

* George S. Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education,* University of Chicago Press, 1922, pp. 33 and 42.

| Occupation of Parents | Number in Entire High School | Number in Senior Year High School |
|---|---|---|
| Transportation service .......... | 157 | 16 |
| Building trades ............... | 145 | 15 |
| Miscellaneous trades .. .... | 103 | 9 |
| Miners, lumber workers, fishermen | 53 | 6 |
| Personal service ............... | 50 | 5 |
| Common labor ................ | 17 | 1 |
| All occupations ....... | 189 | 28 |

Although this table does not show perfect correlation, it points out clearly a close connection between the economic status of the family and the persistence of the children through high school. Other data point to the same condition, as the fact that children from the fathers in the building trade make up 16.5% of all sixth grade pupils as compared to 0.7% of the twelfth grade pupils; and children of fathers in common labor make up 10.8% of all grade children as compared to but a small fraction of one per cent of the twelfth grade pupils.

*Discussion:*

1. Indicate the more important factors causing elimination of pupils from the grades and high school. What are the sociological implications of these for a democracy?

2. What are the more serious inequalities in our educational system as judged from the viewpoint of the sociologist? Discuss the significance of each.

3. Draw up a list of fundamental sociological principles which, if followed out, would provide genuine equality of educational opportunity. Show specifically how these would overcome the weaknesses brought out in questions 1 and 2.

4. From your readings in current literature or from your experience bring in examples of (1) unequal educational oppor-

tunities in schools of today; (2) efforts in school organization and procedure to overcome inequalities of educational opportunities.

*Sources:*
1. Kinneman, Chapters 10, 11.
2. Peters, pp. 191–197.
3. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, Chapter 1.
4. *Review of Educational Research,* " Pupil Personnel, Guidance and Counselling," Vol. III, No. 3, June, 1933. Chapters 1, 5.
5. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 355–375.

## SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF OUR PUBLIC SCHOOL PUPILS

PROBLEM. *What are the social and economic characteristics of the population of our public schools, and what is the sociological significance of them?*

*Case:*

There are approximately 20,000,000 children enrolled in our public schools, about one-fifth of whom are attending high school in about 22,000 different secondary institutions. Approximately 80% of these high school pupils are in small high schools which enroll 200 or fewer students, and over one-third of them are in high schools enrolling 50 or fewer students.

Although the United States is proud of its free educational opportunities for all school children through the high school and feels that her public schools are predominantly democratic in their organization and opportunities presented, yet some studies of the population of our high schools at least bring this contention into question. In 1922 C. E. Holley made a study of families whose children were being sent to high school and families in the same areas whose children were not being sent on to high school. Some of the findings follow:

| Family Characteristics Reported Upon | Families Sending Children to School | Families not Sending Children to School |
|---|---|---|
| 1. What is the father's work? | Professional and commercial. | Artisans, trades, semi- and unskilled labor. |

| Family Characteristics Reported Upon | Families Sending Children to School | Families not Sending Children to School |
|---|---|---|
| 2. What is the median years of schooling for the parents? | 12 years<br>60% had more than 4 years high school | 8 years<br>90% had less than 4 years high school. |
| 3. What were the evidences of culture in the homes? | " Better class " magazines were common. Libraries averaged 271 volumes. | " Better class " magazines seldom found. Libraries averaged 83 volumes. 97% had less than 271 volumes. |
| 4. In what kinds of organizations do parents have membership? | Fathers belong to more and greater variety of clubs. Mother is frequently enrolled in women's clubs. | Fathers attend few and a limited variety of clubs. Mothers seldom belong to any but school clubs for parents. |
| 5. What is the median yearly income per family? | $2,000 | $1,350 |

Similarly, George S. Counts showed in his publication, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education,* in which he reported a two-year investigation of the high school populations of Bridgeport, Connecticut, Mount Vernon, New York, St. Louis, Missouri, and Seattle, Washington, that there was a much lower percentage of pupils who continued through to the senior year of high school coming from the lower economic strata of society, than entered in the first year of high school. This investigation showed that whereas 55% of the entering class in high school came from the professional, managerial, commercial, and clerical groups, 71.5% of the senior class would be made up of these groups. Similarly, whereas about 30% of the entering class would be children from the homes of tradesmen and about 7% from the homes of common laborers, by the

time the senior year of high school was reached this representation would have fallen to 13% and 2% respectively. Counts concludes that our secondary schools are still highly selective in character, and that children from the lower economic strata are getting very little beyond an eighth grade education.

*Discussion:*

1. Summarize the more important social and economic facts regarding the character of our public school population that you have gathered from your general educational reading and study, and show their educational significance.

2. Explain the principle involved in the compulsory attendance laws and show definitely how they operate to bring about certain of the present characteristics of our public school population. Show to what extent the change in the high school population's social and economic characteristics are traceable to the fact that the compulsory attendance laws cease to function in the latter part of the secondary school period.

3. Can the masses as a whole sufficiently benefit by free secondary education to justify it? What evidence do you have to support your point of view?

4. List as many types of educational organization and procedure as you can, which have been evolved to meet problems arising from the present social and economic characteristics of our school population, and show how each is expected to function to meet the need involved.

5. Can collegiate institutions in a democracy be justified in limiting their enrollment? Support your contention. Distinguish between publicly and privately owned institutions.

6. Upon the basis of sociological principles, justify or condemn the American educational principle of free, public education for the masses. Justify any limitations of this principle which you think are necessary.

*Sources:*

1. *National Survey of Secondary Education,* " Part-Time Secondary Schools," Monograph No. 3, 1933, Chapters 3, 5.

2. *National Survey of Secondary Education,* " The Secondary School Population," Monograph No. 4, Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

3. *Review of Educational Research,* " Pupil Personnel, Guidance and Counselling," Vol. III, No. 3, June, 1933, Chapters 1, 5.

4. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 12.

5. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 20.

6. Tuttle, Chapters 8, 9, 10.

## WHO SHOULD GO TO COLLEGE?

PROBLEM. *The sociological and economic importance of a guidance program in the public schools.*

*Case:*

Fred was never a brilliant student, but was an affable boy who always won his way readily with his teachers. He was accorded a good many honors in high school, although application to work and genuine mental integrity never marked his efforts. After graduation he planned to go back to the farm with his father. He and his father had contrived a hand cultivator which proved a popular tool among gardeners in their locality. They made these in a shop on the farm and Fred's winning way with people aided in the sales end of their project so that he and his father were making a considerable profit from their invention. Fred was helping his father cut hay when his closest high school chum, Harold, came over and tried to persuade him to go along to the state university the coming fall. After some consideration, and largely through the friendship with Harold, Fred decided he wanted to go to college and study medicine. The parents were persuaded to give him this chance, although it meant mortgaging the farm. After three years in college, Fred was convinced that he would never be able to finish the medical course, so he changed over to the course in business administration. A further mortgage was placed on the farm, the patent rights of the hand cultivator were sold and Fred continued his college studies. The next two years were no more successful, and Fred

left college, returning to the farm, which was now heavily in debt. He is now working on the farm with his fast aging father, the whole family is much discouraged and find it very difficult to keep up the necessary payments on the mortgage. The parents are too old to carry on much longer, so the future looks very dark for Fred.

*Discussion:*

1. What are the social and economic needs for vocational guidance in the public schools? Is guidance the school's responsibility? Why?

2. Estimate what Fred's unfortunate experience actually cost his family. What is the cost to society of similar maladjustments?

3. Show how a program of educational guidance might have prevented Fred's mistake. Where does educational guidance stop and vocational guidance begin?

4. Indicate the factors that must be taken into consideration in giving vocational guidance.

5. Upon what sociological principles could the school superintendent justify asking his board of education for appropriations to establish a vocational guidance program such as you outlined in 4?

*Sources:*

1. Brewer, John M., *The Vocational Guidance Movement,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1918. Chapters 3, 8.

2. Kefauver, G. N., and Hand, H. C., " Objectives of Guidance in Secondary Schools," *Teachers College Record,* 34:380–385, February, 1933.

3. Koos, L. V., and Kefauver, G. N., *Guidance in Secondary Schools,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1932. Chapters 1, 21.

4. Meyers, George E., *The Problem of Vocational Guidance,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1927. Chapter 2.

5. *Review of Educational Research,* " Pupil Personnel, Guidance and Counselling," Vol. III, No. 3, June, 1933. Chapters 6, 8.

6. Smith, *Introduction,* pp. 380–382.

7. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 706–710.

8. Thayer, Vivian T., " Education for Orientation," *Progressive Education,* 10:386–393, November, 1933.

.

# PROBLEM 65

## LIFE AMBITIONS OF BOYS

PROBLEM. *How can the public schools administer programs of vocational guidance that will effectively guide young people in forming their life ambitions?*

*Case:*

Dr. Lehman of Ohio University and Dr. Witty of Northwestern University made a study of the ambitions of 13,000 boys from eight to eighteen years of age, which they presented at the psychology section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. It appears from this investigation that the ambitions of boys of this age change very rapidly as they grow older. The ambitions of boys at eight and at eighteen years of age are shown in their order of preference in the following list:

| *At eight years* | *At eighteen years* |
|---|---|
| Cowboy | Aviator |
| Aviator | Architect |
| Soldier | Lawyer |
| Army officer | Electrical engineer |
| Sailor | Football coach |
| Lawyer | Musician |
| Banker | Doctor |
| Locomotive engineer | Civil engineer |
| Baseball player | Newspaper man |
| Policeman | Army officer |

The Lehman-Witty chart giving the rise and decline of the different ambitions at various ages shows the number preferring

216

each career first surging forward and then declining and often fading out entirely. This shows great instability of life purpose and suggests that the purpose dominating at any given time as, for example, when a crucial choice of life work may be made, is quite likely not the best or most permanent life ambition for the particular boy.

*Discussion:*

1. Investigate the life ambitions of a group of children in the grades and a group of seniors in the high school, distributing their preferences according to frequency of each and charting them. Do they bear out the contention above?

2. What are the mistaken conceptions of vocational guidance most commonly met with? Give a valid definition of the function of vocational guidance.

3. List the specific methods a school should use in assisting a child to consider what his vocational future should be. What information should every counsellor have? Where can he get it?

4. How far should school counsellors go in indicating what line of work a student should choose to prepare for? Give your reasons.

5. Is the school responsible for pupil placement in vocations? Give arguments for and against.

6. Give the sociological principles upon which you base your answers.

*Sources:*

1. Brewer, Chapter 8.

2. Good, pp. 312–325.

3. Hurlin, R. I., and Givens, M. R., "Shifting Occupational Patterns," *Recent Social Trends Monograph,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1933.

4. *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* Vol. 8, No. 1, September, 1933. Entire issue on "Guidance."

5. McCracken and Lamb, *Occupational Information in the Elementary School.*

6. Myers, Chapters 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

7. Peters, pp. 232–234; 245–247.

8. *Review of Educational Research,* " Pupil Personnel, Guidance and Counselling." Vol. III, No. 3, June, 1933, Chapters 6, 8.

9. Ross, Mary, " What We Do," *Survey-Graphic,* 22:18–21, 56–64, January, 1933.

10. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 701–721.

# EDUCATIONAL CONTRIBUTIONS TO SOCIAL PROGRESS

T HE problems in this section deal specifically with the educational contributions to social progress. We have seen the sociological bases necessary to the proper solution of many of our educational problems. We have also seen the interplay of sociology and education. Now we shall consider directly the contributions education can make to social progress. What is the relation of education to such problems as emotional stability, promoting international good-will, social planning, racial tolerance, group tolerance, economic ills, standard of living, controversy, public opinion, democracy, and propaganda?

The psychiatrists are concerned with the rapid rise in our insanity rate. For every case finally committed to an institution, there are several cases waiting commitment and perhaps many more who ought to be committed. Many reasons, sociological and psychological, are given for the increase. In suggestions for control and prevention the school and its instructional program can well be listed. What can it do to prevent emotional instability? What principles of education can be employed to strengthen the school's contribution here?

Social stability goes beyond the emotional aspect. It is true that many of our social reactions are emotional, but it is also true that a great deal of our social instability is due to ignorance, lack of sympathy, and unwillingness to compromise. Education should

make for a greater degree of desirable social stability because it promotes social orderliness, justice, intelligent change, correct social habits and attitudes. It promotes sane and healthy attitudes toward our foreign neighbors. A great deal of international misunderstanding so far as the individual is concerned is emotional in nature; a great deal of our national misunderstanding of international affairs is due to unwillingness to compromise because of national pride. The school can certainly assist in promoting social stability in the teaching of correct attitudes and in textbook revision. Does the school accomplish these objectives? Does it encourage or discourage international understanding?

A great deal has been spoken and written about social planning. The cultural lag has been estimated to be one hundred to one hundred and fifty years. The technocrats forecast a day of doom, or a day of leisure and sunshine, depending upon social readjustment. What contribution can the school make to social planning?

Again, is the cultivation of group and racial tolerance a function of the school? How far can the school go in establishing racial attitudes? Often we are unaware of the actual social distances separating us. We live in rather intimate primary groups and less intimate secondary groups, without sensing the differences in our viewpoints. An opportunity is given you in one of the problems to measure social distances. Should the school make use of such devices? After information is obtained on a social distance scale what bearing should it have on the curriculum?

In a consideration of our economic ills, what part should the school take? Should it be concerned with such problems as war, waste, unemployment, stock-market cycles, consumption, high costs, and distribution? Does the solution of these problems depend upon an adequate educational program? Is Smith correct

in stating the three theories of social progress as: (1) biological heredity, (2) social heredity, and (3) telic education?

Growing out of the economic ills is the problem of a standard of living. A bare existence, a living existence, or a cultural existence is determined by our attitude toward a standard of living. The school as a unit engaged in preparing for present and future living must be conscious of its duty here. What social effects can be traced to a failure to raise the standard of living? Can the school assist in developing a better standard of living?

What can the schools do to perpetuate our democratic form of government? If a true democracy is to be established, education must train an intelligent leadership with telic objectives, and an intelligent citizenry that can understand and appreciate, and so co-operate with this leadership. Is this true? A progressive government strives to direct progress along telic lines, and therefore must use the school system, for education is the most important telic force. Do you believe it?

As soon as one introduces social issues into the school, controversy arises. This is so because the issue may cut across mores and traditions; it may involve many vested interests. What is to be the place of the school in regard to controversial issues? How can information be given to the children without arousing controversy? What constitutes controversy? You cannot escape situations involving controversy. Do you understand the sociology of controversy and the possible contributions of the school?

Public opinion is basic to the success or failure of sociological and educational issues. In fact, the most powerful sanction is public opinion. The sociologist and educator must learn how to use it in advancing social programs, and how to direct it so that social progress may be assured. The way it is directed marks the difference between social advancement and decline. Do you

understand it? Do you understand the position of the school as a molder and directing agent of public opinion?

After completing this section you should understand such fundamental sociological concepts as social stability, emotional stability, social distance, group conflict, social intolerance, standard of living, controversy, public opinion, and propaganda. You should also see the school as a social institution not only teaching skills, but as an aggressive agent developing and formulating correct social attitudes which are necessary to the stability of society.

# PROBLEM 66

## EDUCATION AND EMOTIONAL STABILITY

PROBLEM. *Is emotional instability progressive in character and can it be corrected by the educative process?*

*Case:*

Each year the American public is aroused by statements as to the emotional instability of many citizens. The solution is supposed to be well directed education in the public school system. The direct contribution of the public school to emotional and social stability is postulated but the direct study of the effect of education upon emotional stability has been overlooked. In order that you may obtain first-hand evidence as to the effect of the one upon the other it is suggested that a case study be made.

Visit an elementary school teacher. State your problem and ask her to assign a student to you whom she would like to have you study. Collect all the facts you can about the pupil, using the case study check list given below. After you have obtained all the information you can, write up the case, using the divisional headings of the case study check list.

### CASE STUDY CHECK LIST

I. Physical Condition
    1. Check the condition of:
        a. Sight
        b. Hearing
        c. Motor co-ordination

        d. Body defects

        e. Malnutrition

        f. Teeth

II. Emotional Conflicts

    1. Does the child have difficulty in getting along with:

        a. Parents

        b. Teachers

        c. Playmates

        d. Group associates

III. Emotional Responses

    1. Does the pupil display unusual outbursts of:

        a. Anger

        b. Hate

        c. Affection

        d. Crying

        e. Pouting

        f. Retaliation

    2. Under what conditions do his outbursts occur?

IV. Interests

    1. What are the pupil's interests:

        a. Reading

        b. Sports

        c. Movies

        d. Travel

        e. Boy Scouts or Girl Scouts

        f. Religious activities

    2. What part of his leisure time is devoted to each of his interests?

V. Group Relationship

    1. Is the pupil interested in:

        a. Gangs

        b. Clubs

        c. Any other kind of group relationship

    2. Does the pupil go alone or does he like companionship?

    3. Are the groups with which he associates social or anti-social in character?

VI. Sources of Behavior Patterns

    1. Which group dominates in molding the pupil's ideas, opinions, and attitudes:

        a. Parents

        b. Gang associates

        c. Intimate friends

        d. Boy Scouts

        e. Etc.

    2. Have attempts been made to change his group patterns? With what success?

VII. Habits

    1. What habits have been formed which are detrimental to his welfare?

    2. Have attempts been made to change his system of habits?

VIII. Attitudes

    1. Check his attitudes as good, bad, indifferent toward:

        a. School

        b. Home

        c. Church

        d. Government

        e. Morals

        f. Society

        g. Etc.

IX. School Record

    1. Record all data, such as intelligence ratings, achievement ratings, awards, penalties, etc., which show his school progress.

X. Religious Record
> 1. What is his religious background as far as home, neighborhood, etc., are concerned?
> 2. What is his attitude toward religion and religious experience?

XI. Pupil's Own Story
> 1. Have the pupil tell you the story of his life. Permit and encourage him to tell you about himself, his beliefs, difficulties, experiences, and ambitions. Make notes without making him conscious of it and later write up the story.

*Discussion:*

1. Now that the complete case study has been made, write up your conclusions, as to (a) difficulties, (b) possible measures to bring about a change.

2. Show definitely how emotional stability is the result of a gradual change induced by social and educative forces.

3. Outline a definite and constructive program for the school which will tend to produce emotional stability.

*Sources:*

1. *Educational Sociology, Journal of,* "Juvenile Delinquency and Education," Vol. 6, No. 8, April, 1933. Entire issue.

2. Fenton, Norman, "Mental Hygiene and Its Administration in the High School," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* 6:426–430, March, 1932.

3. Galdston, Iago, "The Relation of Physical and Mental Health," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 5:207–214, December, 1931.

4. Healy, Bonner, and Others, *Reconstructing Behavior in Youth,* Alfred A. Knopf, New York.

5. *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* Vol. 7, No. 1, September, 1932. Entire issue on "Mental Guidance."

6. *Judge Baker Foundation Studies,* Judge Baker Foundation, Boston.

7. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. II, pp. 769–788.

8. *Review of Educational Research,* " Mental and Physical Development," Vol. III, No. 2, April, 1933.

9. Sandy, William C., " The Mental Hazards of Adolescence," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* 6:485–487, April, 1932.

10. Snedden, Donald, " The Work of a Psycho-Educational Mental-Hygiene Clinic," *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 6:516–524, May, 1933.

11. Thom, Douglas, " Mental Hygiene and Depression," *Mental Hygiene,* 16:564–576, October, 1932.

12. Whitley, R. L., " Interviewing the Problem Boy," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 5:89–100, October, 1931.

13. Whitley, R. L., " Case Studies in the Boys' Club Study," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 6:17–30, September, 1932.

14. Yourman, Julius, " Children Identified by Their Teachers as Problems," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 5:334–343, February, 1932.

## EDUCATION AND SOCIAL STABILITY

PROBLEM. *To what extent does education make for social stability and permanency?*

*Case:*

George Sylvester Counts in his book, *The American Road to Culture,* shows clearly how much more difficult it is to maintain the level of educational ideals and practices in a democracy than in an autocracy. In a democracy the very educational structures are often threatened by freaks of public opinion born of mob psychology. It has been illustrated in our educational history frequently, as when the German language was thrown out of both high schools and colleges during the World War; when one city for a time developed an ardent anti-British phobia; when certain sections of the country became so much fundamentalist that they denied by law the right to teach evolution in the public schools, and so on. While a European observer would judge from these evidences that the level of American culture must be very low indeed, the facts of the case show a different explanation. In none of the European countries would the masses be any more progressive in their reactions to similar largely emotional situations. However, in Europe the educated leadership would so dominate the educational system that such situations could not occur there, whereas in America the masses are both articulate and in a position of power, so that they can and frequently do override the better judgment of the educated leaders.

*Discussion:*

1. Define social stability. Reconcile it with social progress.

2. Name sociological conditions which make for social stability and show how they operate to that end. How did they fail to function in the situations cited above, and why?

3. Show specifically how social controls contribute to social stability. To what extent is the operation of these controls hampered in a democracy where the masses rule? Explain your position.

4. What dangers to social stability result from the general interpretation of the ideal of nationalism? Show how these dangers operate. Are these dangers aggravated or alleviated by a democratic form of government? Support your answer.

5. Show in detail the contributions of education to the ideal of internationalism. Cite instances similar to those above where education has failed to promote internationalism. How might they have been avoided?

6. Summarize education's possible contributions to social stability from the point of view of sociology.

*Sources:*

1. Bernard, L. L., and others, *Social Attitudes,* Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1931.

2. Bogardus, Chapter 8.

3. Finney, Chapters 23, 24.

4. Groves, Chapters 11, 12.

5. Martin, Everett Dean, *The Behavior of the Crowd,* W. W. Norton and Co., New York, 1920.

6. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 12.

7. Tuttle, Chapters 12, 14.

# SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND EMOTIONAL INSTABILITY

PROBLEM. *What is the sociology of emotional instability? What constructive social forces can assist in promoting emotional stability?*

*Case:*

The suicide rate in the United States is on the increase. This fact is shown by a study of vital statistics furnished by the Census Bureau. In 1920 the United States registration area reported 8,959 suicides and in 1931 20,000, which was an increase of 8% over the 18,500 reported in 1930. Up until 1934, there have been approximately 20,000 suicides a year.

It is socially necessary that the problem be studied and causes and prevention of suicide be determined. Among the accepted causes of suicide we find listed, (1) dissatisfaction with life, (2) neurological disorders, (3) unbearable competition in business, (4) influence of city congestion, (5) speed and nervous tension, (6) acute pain, and (7) poor inheritance.

There are a number of preventions given, such as, (1) enlargement of interests — recreational and cultural, (2) courses in mental hygiene, (3) de-centralization of industry to make living conditions more wholesome and secure, (4) increased economic and social security, and (5) public mental hygiene clinics.

The rate of suicides, however, does not give a complete picture of our emotional instability. Our municipal, state, and

private hospitals for the insane and emotionally unbalanced must also be considered. During the last decade there has been a tremendous increase in the number of admissions. It is now estimated that before long 22 persons out of every hundred will at some time or other become inmates, temporarily or permanently, of such institutions. The causes and methods of prevention are much the same as those given for suicide.

*Discussion:*

1. What situations in our present organizations of educational facilities might contribute to emotional instability? Cite any such instances of which you know.

2. Of what social value is a study of this problem to the sociologist; to the educator?

3. Why is there a difference in the suicide rates of rural and city districts; of Negro and white? What is the social significance of variations in suicide rates?

4. What constructive work can the school do to promote emotional stability?

5. Outline a constructive program to be put into operation by the other social agencies of community and state for promoting emotional stability?

6. What principles of educational sociology can you draw upon in support of such programs as you set up in questions 4 and 5?

*Sources:*

1. Anderson, V. V., and Kennedy, William, *Psychiatry in Education,* Harper and Brothers, New York, 1932.

2. Averill, Lawrence A., "Teacher Contributions to Mental Hazards of Children," *Education,* 54:390–395, March, 1934.

3. Beers, Clifford W., *A Mind That Found Itself,* Doubleday, Doran and Co., Garden City, N. Y., 1935.

4. Burnham, W. H., " Mental Hygiene in the School," *Mental Hygiene,* 16:26–36, January, 1932.

5. Burnham, W. H., *The Wholesome Personality,* Appleton and Company, New York.

6. Davies, Stanley P., " Education of the Public in Mental Hygiene," *Mental Hygiene,* 16:238–258, April, 1932.

7. Fenton, Norman, " Mental Hygiene and Its Administration in the High School," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* 6:426–430, March, 1932.

8. Groves, Chapters 3, 4.

9. *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* Vol. 7, No. 1, September, 1932. Entire issue on " Mental Guidance."

10. Kulp, pp. 471–473.

11. Martens, Elise H., and Russ, Helen, *Adjustment of Behavior Problems of School Children,* Office of Education Bulletin, No. 18, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1932.

12. Patry, Frederick L., " Psychiatry in the Junior High School," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* 8:157–166, November, 1933.

13. Zorbaugh, Harvey W., " Mental Hygiene's Challenge to Education," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 5:325–333, February, 1932.

# PROBLEM 69

## A COMMUNITY SURVEY

PROBLEM. *How can the community measure its social effectiveness?*

*Case:*

We consider ourselves members of the community and day after day go about our duties without consciously considering the social effectiveness of the groups making up the community. A score card for measuring the social development of the community is reproduced below. Score your community on the card.

### A COMMUNITY SCORE CARD

(Prepared by the Federal Council on Citizenship Training)

#### MENTAL DEVELOPMENT

| | Maximum Score Possible | Community Score |
|---|---|---|
| I. Literacy of the population: | 15 | |
| A. What per cent of the population 10 years of age or over cannot read, write, and speak the English language? | | |
| If less than 1 per cent score 15 | | |
| If between 1 and 3 per cent score 10 | | |
| If between 3 and 5 per cent score 5 | | |
| If more than 5 per cent score 0 | | |
| II. Provisions for elementary and secondary schools: | | |

| | Maximum Score Possible | Community Score |
|---|---|---|
| A. Average number of days per year schools are kept open, excluding holidays. | 12 | |
|     If 175 days or over score 12<br>If 155 to 175 days score 8<br>If 135 to 155 days score 0 | | |
| B. Percentage of elementary school teachers who are high-school graduates with not less than one additional year of training in normal school or college. | 12 | |
|     If 95 to 100 per cent score 12<br>If 85 to 95 per cent score 8<br>If 75 to 85 per cent score 0 | | |
| C. Annual expenditure for current expenses per child in average daily attendance. | 10 | |
|     If $50 or over score 10<br>If between $30 and $50 score 7<br>If between $20 and $30 score 3<br>If less than $20 score 0    . | | |
| D. Compulsory school age. | 5 | |
|     If the compulsory school age, including the period in which employment permits may be legally granted is 16 or over score 5<br>If below 16 score 0 | | |
| E. Free high-school instruction: Does the community make provision for free instruction of its pupils in high schools? | 7 | |
|     If 'yes' in non-standard four-year high school or high schools of less than four years in length score 3 | | |

| | *Maximum Score Possible* | *Community Score* |
|---|---|---|

If 'yes' in standard four-year high schools score 7
If 'no' score 0

III. Attendance at elementary and secondary schools: [1]

A. Per cent of persons of legal school age attending school daily.    **15**

If 90% or over score 15
If between 75% and 90% score 10
If between 60% and 75% score 5
If less than 60% score 0

B. Average number of days per year, excluding holidays, attended by each person of legal school age.[1]    **15**

If 175 days or over score 15
If 155 to 175 days score 10
If 135 to 155 days score 5
If less than 135 days score 0

IV. The public library: [2]

A. Expenditures for library service.    **3**

If your library is spending 75 cents or more per capita for library service annually score 3
If less score in proportion

B. Average use of the library per capita.    **3**

If your library is lending four or more books annually per capita score 3
If less score in proportion

[1] In so far as possible include students attending school outside of the community as well as in the community.

[2] Appropriate credit should be given each community for circulating library books received by individuals from county and state libraries.

|  | Maximum Score Possible | Community Score |
|---|---|---|
| C. Percentage of population who are registered library borrowers. | 3 |  |
| If 25% of the population are registered library borrowers score 3 If less score in proportion |  |  |

SUMMARY OF SCORES

I. Literacy of the Population:    Maximum Score 15   Community Score ——

II. Provisions for Elementary and Secondary Schools:    Maximum Score 46   Community Score ——

III. Attendance at Elementary and Secondary Schools:    Maximum Score 30   Community Score ——

IV. The Public Library:    Maximum Score 9   Community Score ——

Total    Maximum Score 100   Community Score ——

VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

|  | Maximum Score Possible | Community Score |
|---|---|---|
| I. Types of opportunities offered: | 5 |  |
| A. Day Schools. |  |  |
| 1. Are various types of occupational experiences (pre-vocational work) provided in trade and industry, home economics, and commercial lines for persons of less than senior high school grade? |  |  |
| If one type of work is offered in each of these lines score 2 If three or more types of work are offered in each of the three lines score in addition 3 |  |  |

| | *Maximum Score Possible* | *Community Score* |
|---|---|---|

2. Is work offered in industrial arts, home economics, agriculture, and commercial work in the high school? — **5**

   If one type of work is offered in two or more of the above mentioned lines score 1
   If two or more types are offered in two or more lines score in addition 2
   If three or more types are offered in at least three lines score in addition 2

3. Are vocational courses offered in the trades, home economics, agriculture, and commerce, requiring at least half the school time for vocational work? — **10**

   If these courses are offered in at least two lines score 5
   If these courses are organized on the basis of community occupational demands score in addition 5

B. Part-time Schools (schools or classes attended by young employed workers during the working day). — **10**

   1. Do the industries co-operate in giving courses in the trades or retail selling?
      If so score 5

   2. Are general continuation schools maintained?
      If for vocational guidance, civic and general intelligence only score 2
      If to prepare individuals for local employment opportunities score in addition 3

| | Maximum Score Possible | Community Score |
|---|---|---|

C. Evening Schools: Are vocational courses offered in trade, home economics, and commercial lines?     **10**

> If they are of an occupational preparatory nature score 2
> If courses are offered as supplemental to the daily occupations of the class personnel score in addition 4
> If the courses meet the principal occupational demands of the community score in addition 4

II. Per cent of people reached by the opportunities for vocational development:

A. If 25% of those in school grades below the senior high school is reached score 2     **10**
If 50% of the above group is reached score in addition 3
If 75% of the above group is reached score in addition 5

B. If 25% of those in senior high school is reached score 3     **5**
If 50% of the above group is reached score in addition 2

C. If 50% of the group between 14 and 17 inclusive out of school is reached score 5     **10**
If 75% of the above group is reached score in addition 5

D. If ½% of the community population is enrolled in part-time or evening classes for persons over 16 score 5     **10**
If 1% of the above group is reached score in addition 5

| | Maximum Score Possible | Community Score |
|---|---|---|

III. Adequacy of financial support for vocational training:

    A. If offered at public expense and without fees, except for registration or laboratory supplies score 5 — **5**

    B. If the community is willing and ready to provide funds for expansion of vocational training and civilian vocational rehabilitation to meet community demands score 5 — **5**

IV. Provisions for promotion and control of vocational program:

    A. If a supervisor or director of vocational education is employed score 5
    If not score 0 — **5**

    B. If there is a board which includes representatives of the industrial, labor, commercial, and home-making interests of the community acting in an advisory capacity to the board of education score 5
    If not score 0 — **5**

    C. If the board of education is representative of several community interests score 5
    If not score 0 — **5**

SUMMARY OF SCORES

I. Types of opportunities: Maximum Score 40 Community ——
II. Per cent of people reached: Maximum Score 35 Community ——
III. Adequacy of financial support: Maximum Score 10 Community ——
IV. Provisions for promotion: Maximum Score 15 Community ——

Total Maximum Score 100 Community ——

SOCIAL AND MORAL DEVELOPMENT

|  | *Maximum Score Possible* | *Community Score* |
|---|---|---|
| **I. Law and Order:** | | |
| A. Respect for law and constituted authority. | 22 | |
|     1. If police force and prosecuting officials have co-operated and worked efficiently in the interest of prompt apprehension and trial of all law violators score 5<br>If not score 0 | | |
|     2. If trial judges and judicial procedures are such that speedy and impartial trial is secured score 5<br>If not score 0 | | |
|     3. Of members of community drawn for jury service during the past year, if less than 10% have asked to be excused for reasons not deemed valid by the court score 2<br>If more score 0 | | |
|     4. If number of persons convicted of crime during the past year does not exceed ½% of total population of community score 3<br>If more score 0 | | |
|     5. If community has had no mob violence or attempt of groups of citizens to take the law into their own hands during the past five years score 7<br>If otherwise score 0 | | |
| B. Respect for life and safety of fellow citizens. | 13 | |
|     1. If community has traffic regulations approved by state or local authority | | |

| | Maximum Score Possible | Community Score |
|---|---|---|

which require examinations for license with minimum age of eighteen score 3
If not score 0

2. Of traffic accidents in community during the past year if only 5% caused serious injury or death score 5
If more score 0

3. If community has fire escapes or other fire equipment required by state laws or local ordinances on all public buildings and on private buildings exceeding three stories in height score 5
If not score 0

C. Honesty and efficiency of administration of public services. — **10**

1. If there have been no bank or public service corporation failures due to bad administration or dishonesty and no defalcations by officers of such institutions in your community for the past ten years score 5
If otherwise score 0

2. If no public officer or school teacher has been dismissed for inefficiency, dishonesty, or immorality during the past five years score 5
If otherwise score 0

D. Familiarity with government matters. — **6**

1. Of 100 members of the community asked to name 4 county, 3 state, and 3 national officials and tell in a general

| | Maximum Score Possible | Community Score |
|---|---|---|
| way what they do, if 80% have given correct answers score 3 | | |
| If from 60% to 80% score 2 | | |
| If less than 60% score 0 | | |
| 2. Of 100 members of the community asked to give the name, location, and nature of the work of 3 state educational, corrective, hospital, or other institutions, if 90% give correct answers score 3 | | |
| If from 75% to 90% score 2 | | |
| If less than 75% score 0 | | |
| **II. Community Welfare:** | 5 | |
| A. Home ownership. | | |
| 1. If 60% or more of the families in the community own their own homes score 5 | | |
| If the proportion owning homes is between 50% and 60% score 3 | | |
| If less than 50% score 0 | | |
| B. External attractiveness of community. | 4 | |
| 1. If public buildings, stores, parks, streets, and private homes and grounds are clean and attractive in appearance score 4 | | |
| If there are any ill-kept or unsightly sections of the community score in proportion | | |
| C. Community organization. | 11 | |
| 1. If community has one charitable or welfare organization, including church | | |

| | Maximum Score Possible | Community Score |
|---|---|---|

or lodge, for each 50 families or one active organization representing the whole community score 5
If less score in proportion

2. If the community has at least two community buildings, rooms, or enterprises in actual operation and in general use, such as community house, rest room, public library, public park or playground, or fair score 3
If less score 0

3. If the community has definite program of community work in operation score 3

III. Moral Development:

A. Character of amusements.                    10
Character and moral influence of sports, plays, movies, fairs, and other special gatherings in the community.

1. As measured by their adequacy to meet the social needs of the community
If excellent score 5
If improvement is needed score in proportion

2. As measured by freedom from gambling, immorality, and vulgarity
If excellent score 5
If improvement is needed score in proportion

B. Family relations.                    10

1. If there has not been more than 1 divorce to 20 marriages of community

| | *Maximum Score Possible* | *Community Score* |
|---|---|---|
| members during the past ten years score 10 | | |
| If more score 0 | | |
| **C.** Religious organizations. | 10 | |
| 1. If buildings used by religious organizations will accommodate 85% of members of the community over 7 years old score 3 | | |
| If less score 0 | | |
| 2. If community has for each 2,500 population at least one pastor or other regularly employed religious leader who resides in the community score 4 | | |
| If not score 0 | | |
| 3. If each organization or federation of organizations maintains at least one agency for religious education of children of school age score 3 | | |
| If not score 0 | | |

### SUMMARY OF SCORES

|  |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|
| I. Law and Order: | Maximum Score | 50 | Community —— |
| II. Community Welfare: | Maximum Score | 20 | Community —— |
| III. Moral Development: | Maximum Score | 30 | Community —— |
| Total | Maximum Score | 100 | Community —— |

### FINAL SUMMARY OF SCORES
*Mental Development*

| | *Maximum* | *Community* |
|---|---|---|
| I. Literacy of the population | 15 | |
| II. Provisions for elementary and secondary schools | 46 | |
| III. Attendance at elementary and secondary schools | 30 | |
| IV. The public library | 9 | |

### Vocational Development

|                                  | Maximum | Community |
|----------------------------------|---------|-----------|
| I. Types of opportunities        | 40      |           |
| II. Per cent of people reached   | 35      |           |
| III. Adequacy of financial support | 10    |           |
| IV. Provisions for promotion     | 15      |           |

### Social and Moral Development

|                          | Maximum | Community |
|--------------------------|---------|-----------|
| I. Law and order         | 50      |           |
| II. Community welfare    | 20      |           |
| III. Moral development   | 30      |           |
| Total                    | 300     |           |

*Discussion:*

1. Evaluate the usefulness of such a score card for a school administrator. List as many practical uses as you can to which the information gathered might be put.

2. On the basis of the information gathered from the survey made, what (1) are the strong points educationally and culturally of this community, and (2) what are the weak points?

3. Suggest modifications of or additions to the total educational program of this community which you would consider desirable judging from the results of this survey.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, *The New Social Research,* Chapter 9.

2. Burgess, Thomas O., " The Techniques of Research in Educational Sociology," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 4:272–279, January, 1931.

3. Lundberg, George A., *Social Research,* Chapter 10, Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1929.

4. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 19.

## TWENTY YEARS HENCE

Problem. *How can we plan our social development intelli-gently?*

*Case:*

The National Education Association presents the following twenty prophecies for our social and economic progress.

1. A system of health and safety that will practically wipe out preventable accidents and contagious diseases.

2. A system of housing for the masses that will provide homes surrounded by beauty, privacy, quiet, sun, fresh air, and play space.

3. A flat telephone rate for the entire country at moderate costs.

4. Universal air transportation at low cost.

5. A system of paved, beautiful highways will connect every part of the nation.

6. A further development of school buildings and play fields until they will exceed in nobility the architectural achievements of any other age.

7. The organization of industry, business, and agriculture to minimize uncertainty and depression.

8. The perfection of the insurance system to give universal protection from disasters, unemployment, and old age.

9. The extension of national, state, and local parks to provide convenient recreation areas for all people.

10. The perfection of community, city, and regional plan-

ning to make all surroundings increasingly beautiful and favorable to the good life.

11. The shorter working week and day, so extended that there will be work for all.

12. Hospitalization and medical care will be available for all who need them.

13. There will be a quickened appreciation of the home as the center of personal growth and happiness.

14. Educational service, free or at small cost, will be available from the earliest years of childhood throughout life.

15. A free public library will grow in importance, leading the way toward higher standards of maintained intelligence.

16. The nation will achieve an American standard of citizenship which means wholesome community life and clean government.

17. Crime will be virtually abolished by transferring to the preventive processes of the school and education the problems of conduct which police courts and prisons now seek to remedy when it is too late.

18. Avocational activities will become richer, leading to nobler companionships and to development of the creative arts.

19. Ethical standards will rise to keep pace with new needs in business, industry, and international relations.

20. The religious awakening will grow in strength until most of our citizens will appreciate the importance of religion in the well-ordered daily life.


*Discussion:*

1. Evaluate the social and economic desirability of the above prophecies as a whole. Indicate any to which you take exception. Why?

2. Define " *zeitgeist.*" Indicate which if any of the above prophecies are the outgrowth of current *zeitgeists.* Substantiate

your contentions. Does this make them any less desirable or feasible? Explain.

3. Define "telic education" and enumerate its functions. What are its limitations? How might it contribute to the above outlined ideal? Be rather specific.

4. What contributions should the study of history in our schools make to telic education?

5. What is meant by the "new humanities"? Show how they are indispensable in the light of telic education.

6. Summarize the principles of educational sociology supporting telesis in education.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 8.

2. Counts, George S., *Dare the Schools Build a New Social Order?* John Day Company, New York, 1933.

3. Herring, John W., *Social Planning and Adult Education,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933.

4. Payne, Chapter 9.

5. Peffer, Nathaniel, " Educators Groping for the Stars," *Harper's Magazine,* 116:121, January, 1934.

6. Peters, Chapter 6.

7. Tuttle, Chapters 2, 3, 32.

## EDUCATION AND INTERNATIONALISM

PROBLEM. *Are the outcomes of our much vaunted cultural advance and educational progressiveness promoting social stability?*

*Case:*

In the *Forum and Century Magazine* for October, 1931, Paul D. Gesner writes an imaginary newspaper report of a war some years hence, under the title, " The Morning After." As he puts it, the United States Congress decided to join the " Alliance " against the " Coalition," whereupon New York City was immediately subjected to an attack from the enemy.

Philadelphia, August 13 — The lives of 6,000,000 people in New York City and its suburbs were snuffed out yesterday afternoon at 2:50 o'clock when an air fleet of 600 Coalition bombing planes laid a blanket of diphenyl chloroarsine and cacodyl isocyanide gas over Manhattan Island and the metropolitan area, killing every man, woman, child, beast, plant, and other living thing in New York City's five boroughs and their immediate environs.

More than 2,000,000 other persons were killed last night when winds bore diphenyl chloroarsine from New York City and scattered it over New Jersey and New York State communities immediately north and northwest of the metropolitan area.

Over 36,000,000 are reported to have been killed by gas throughout the world in the past twelve hours.

New York, London, Paris, Calais, Brussels, Berlin, and Vienna are unpopulated cities today, for air raids took the lives of all their inhabitants yesterday afternoon and last evening.

Further lurid details are then given of the havoc wrought in a short time by this fatal poison, showing how business was rendered defunct, schools and churches were but morgues, and how important leaders in every walk of life were wiped out of existence leaving every branch of human activity paralyzed.

*Discussion:*

1. What is internationalism?

2. What factors make for internationalism? Show how they operate.

3. Show what is meant by the negative and the positive aspects of the struggle for internationalism. How are these fundamentally educational problems?

4. Outline measures for promoting internationalism and show how they are expected to function. Are the measures now functioning or is the above imaginary situation entirely within the realms of possibility? Bring evidences of your contention.

5. Evaluate critically Smith's school program for teaching internationalism.

6. What important principles of educational sociology have you gathered from the above discussions?

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 4, section 20; Chapter 7, section 39.

2. Finney, Chapters 23, 24.

3. Groves, Chapters 11, 12.

4. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, pp. 435–439.

5. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 12.

6. Stoker, S., *The Schools and International Understanding,* University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1933.

## PROBLEM 72

---

## EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL GOODWILL

PROBLEM. *What ought education do to promote a true spirit of international goodwill and world peace?*

*Case:*

A survey of 450 business men and educators in the United States and Canada whose names were selected at random from *Who's Who* set forth a series of statements which those surveyed were asked to rate in the order of their importance. The statement receiving the highest percentage of ranks of first importance was: " An important task before the world today is the creation of a new state of mind, a state of mind which will permit an understanding and appreciation of the character, attainments, and traditions of other peoples and which will transcend national boundaries without seeking to destroy them."

Hunter in the Arkansas Journal of Education reports that the billions of dollars wasted on the World War would have been sufficient to do the following:

1. Provide a home site and $4,000 cottage for every family in Great Britain, the United States, Canada, Germany, France, Belgium, and Russia.

2. To supply every city in the above countries, which had 200,000 or more population with a $5,000,000 library, a $5,000,000 hospital and a $10,000,000 university.

3. Create a trust fund which at 5% interest would provide an annual subsidy of $1,000 toward the salaries of 125,000 teachers and 125,000 nurses.

The David Starr Jordan Plan of Education for Peace, which won the Raphael Herman $25,000 award stressed among other things the need of mobilizing our schools to create a world-wide spirit of internationalism and will to peace. General John F. O'Ryan, commander of the Twenty-Seventh Division in the World War said:

> The American people can end war in our time if they get on the job. War cannot be successfully abolished except through the complete mobilization of all peace powers for peace purposes. Let us wage peace. . . . The world has never been organized for peace; it has always been organized for war. . . . While you are in this apathetic state of mind regarding peace, there are men in high command today who do nothing else except plan carefully, minutely, studiously, just how your man child, born or unborn, shall be utilized in the next war, how he shall be clothed, fed, strengthened, shipped away, moved into the line of battle, replaced by your younger child if he falls, and just how his body can be disposed of most conveniently. All these details are being thoughtfully worked out, and it is about time you were doing something for yourselves. . . . Organization for war is a cold, accurate, disinterested business that deals with facts and moves with mathematical precision. It has the strongest leadership possible. It has unified leadership. Is it any wonder that unorganized efforts for peace seem puerile in comparison?

Education's part in this mobilization for peace consists simply in teaching toleration for and appreciation of the peoples and cultures of other lands, the disastrous social and economic effects of war, and in purging history textbooks of all inaccuracies regarding other people, all prejudiced racial statements and intimations together with a shift in emphasis away from the glories of war to the glories of peace and world harmony.

*Discussion:*

1. Would a mobilization of education for peace as suggested above be a case of illegitimate school propaganda? Justify your answer.

2. What are the psychological, social, and economic causes of war?

3. Is the argument that preparedness is a necessary factor in peace psychologically and socially sound? Justify your answer.

4. List all the social forces of an educational nature that need to be mobilized if an international state of mind inimical to wars is to be evolved.

5. List the sociological principles that would justify mobilizing education in the task of establishing world peace.

*Sources:*

1. Barton, Bruce, " Let's Advertise This Hell," *American Magazine,* May, 1932.

2. Bogardus, Chapter 4, section 20; Chapter 7, section 39.

3. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace Library, 700 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

4. Finney, pp. 488–492, 507–512.

5. *World Unity Magazine,* World Unity Publishing Co., 4 East 12th St., New York.

# TEXTBOOKS AND THE NEW INTERNATIONALISM

PROBLEM. *What social effect does the textbook have in the formation of social ideals, especially those related to the New Internationalism?*

*Case:*

Mr. Keith J. Perkins, a graduate student at the University of Michigan, evaluates the effect of textbook organization and interpretation of world history on the formation of attitudes relative to the new internationalism.

The following criteria were used to evaluate several textbooks in world history:

1. Evidence of thinking from a world point of view.

2. Evidence of interests, aspirations, and problems in common with the peoples of the world.

3. Evidence of the realization that the people of the universe form with themselves, free and co-operative equals of the organic whole, for the purpose of promoting the progress of civilized peoples socially, politically, and economically.

The application of these criteria resulted in the following conclusions:

1. The author of a textbook has an opportunity to create any attitude he desires in the mind of his readers, especially immature and inexperienced students.

2. It is the duty of the teacher to evaluate the attitudes which the author intends to establish, and measure them in relation to present day life.

*Discussion:*

1. Evaluate the contention that generations are molded by the publishers of school textbooks. What are the social purposes of textbooks?

2. Are the criteria mentioned above sufficiently complete to measure social effects? Justify your answer. What would you add? Why?

3. Set up a score card for measuring the social effectiveness of any textbook in the field of social relationships. Now score a book and interpret your findings.

4. Are teachers well enough trained to interpret social attitudes and viewpoints? Illustrate your answer. What can be done about it?

5. If you were intending to write a textbook which you hoped would mold opinion on certain points what principles of educational sociology would you recognize as essential to its construction?

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 7, sections 35, 37, 39.

2. Burr, S. E., "The Selection of Textbooks and the Use of Textbook Rating Scales," *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals,* 8:573–575, July, 1929.

3. Cooley, *Social Process,* Chapter 23.

4. Finney, Chapter 14 and pp. 488–492.

5. Harden, Mary, "Some Aspects of the Teaching of International Relations in the Elementary School," *Teachers College Record,* 34:34–43, October, 1932.

6. Johnson, F. W., "A Checking List for the Selection of High School Textbooks," *Teachers College Record,* 27:104-108, October, 1925.

7. Judd, pp. 97–100.

8. League of Nations, *School Textbook Revision and International Understanding,* International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, Paris.

9. National Society for the Study of Education, *The Textbook in American Education,* Part II, Thirtieth Yearbook, Chapter 8, " The Use of Score Cards in Evaluating Textbooks," Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill., 1931.

10. Rapeer, Louis W., " How the Nation May Be Trained in Social Thinking by History Teachers," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 4:287-301, January, 1931.

11. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 12.

EDUCATION FOR RACIAL TOLERANCE

PROBLEM. *What can education do to help develop the essential social virtue of greater racial tolerance?*

*Case:*

  That there is a need for developing greater racial tolerance among the citizens of the United States is evidenced among other things, by the following conditions:

  1. *Lynchings.* Lynchings of colored people in the United States is still a blot upon the reputation of our country. The following well-authenticated incident is a sample of what intolerant citizens of our country are capable of doing. A few years ago a group of white citizens were standing before the office of the *Times* waiting for news bulletins regarding a box manufacturer and lumberman who had been shot in his office, and a Negro, who had also been found shot and lying beside him. Although there was no positive evidence of any sort, it was assumed that the Negro had shot the white man. When the news bulletins came revealing that the white man had died of his wounds and that the Negro was still living, someone in the mob yelled, " Let's lynch him." The crowd went at once to the county's General Hospital where the Negro was being treated. A group of about five made their way into the hospital and into his room over the protests of hospital authorities. They took the man from his sick bed, and dropped him out of the first-floor ward window to the crowd below which bore him to a tree near the court house and hung him. His body was then

cut down, drenched in gasoline and set afire. Although investigations were set afoot by the Governor and others to determine the culprits, it was impossible to get from anyone the names of any parties to the crime.

2. *Racial Attitudes of School Children.* Although children do not naturally make unfavorable distinctions as to racial origins of their playmates, racial prejudice is early developed through the imitation of elders. A recent survey of children's attitudes towards foreign children in a rather select elementary school where children of foreign exchange-professors in the higher institution immediately connected were attending, revealed such attitudes as the following to be common:

" Russia is a bad place to live."

" I don't like the English. They're always starting wars."

" I wish America would get to own the whole world."

" They're only Negroes. They couldn't be expected to know how to sing " (After hearing the Hampton Institute Quartet).

" We're Americans. Why don't we sing American Christmas carols? "

Laughing at a Japanese child's nose, " How funny she looks."

3. *Public Educational Facilities for Negro Children.* In a recent number of *School Life,* Ambrose Caliver, Specialist in the Education of Negroes at the Office of Education, reports on the status of Negro education in 16 Southern states where there is the greatest concentration of Negro population. Among other items it is revealed that there is one teacher for every 211 Negroes of school age. While there are 16% of the white children of high school age in school, there are only 5% of the Negro children provided for in high school. Although only 4% of the white children live three miles or more from available school facilities as compared to 15% of the Negro children, yet transportation is provided for approximately 19% of these white children and only 1% of the Negro children. The average salary

for teachers of rural white children is $945 a year as compared to $388 per year for the teachers of colored children, and some of these colored teachers receive only $200 per year.

*Discussion:*

1. List as many social and cultural benefits as you can which would contribute to social progress if racial intolerance could be largely eliminated from our group thinking.

2. What are the socio-psychological bases for racial intolerance? How might each be in time overcome?

3. List various social agencies that might contribute to the overcoming of racial prejudices, and show the possible contributions of each. Of all these, which do you believe could be made the most effective? Why?

4. Report any experiences that you may have had illustrating educational efforts to substitute racial appreciation for racial prejudice.

5. Use some such test of racial attitudes as Minard's (see Sources) to test out the racial attitudes of a group of school children. Interpret your results to the class.

6. Outline a program for teaching children in our schools greater racial toleration through curriculum materials, activities, school organization, and other media.

7. Upon the basis of what principles of educational sociology can an organized effort to educate our citizens towards greater racial tolerance be established?

*Sources:*

1. Chicago Association for Child Study and Parent Education, *Developing Attitudes in Children,* The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1932. Chapter by Barnes and Gideonse.

2. Lasher, Bruno, *A Study of Racial Attitudes in Children,* Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1929.

3. Minard, Ralph, D., *Race Attitudes of Iowa Children,* Univer-

sity of Iowa, Iowa City, 1931. (University of Iowa Studies, Studies in Character, IV, No. 2.)

4. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. I, pp. 591–600.

5. Rowcek, Joseph S., "The Problem of Becoming American-ized," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17:243–250, January–February, 1933.

6. Svensrud, Marian, "Attitudes of the Japanese Towards Their Language Schools," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17:259–264, January–February, 1933.

7. Zeligs, S., and Hendrickson, G., "Racial Attitudes of 200 Children," *Sociology and Social Research,* 18:26–36, September–October, 1933.

## GROUP INTOLERANCE

PROBLEM. *To what extent are we intolerant of groups, ideas, and attitudes?*

*Case:*

Society is so complex and individuals are so interdependent that conflicts of various sorts can hardly be prevented. Naturally we hold views, inculcated by racial, family, religious, and political groups which may be at variance with those held by our associates. The challenge of our expressed ideas and the emotional interpretation, in many cases, is bound to lead to conflict and often intolerance. It is necessary then that we understand not only the causes for conflicts but how to locate potential conflicts and differences and thus locate the very sources of the conflicts.

One medium for locating differences which often results in conflict is the Social-Distance Check List. A section is reproduced here, and while incomplete will furnish a suggestion for the construction of such a list. The check list to be complete would cover many phases of human associations such as marital, business, religious, etc.

*Discussion:*

1. Construct such a test and try to measure social distance in the following phases of human relations: nationality, business, religious toleration, marital toleration, and political toleration.

A Social Distance Check List

| | Hindus | Negroes | Indians | Chinese | Japanese | Poles | Russians | Italians | Spaniards | Frenchmen | Germans | Scotchmen | Englishmen | Canadians | Irishmen |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Will you willingly associate with | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Will you willingly entertain in your home | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Would you marry | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Would you enter into business partnership with | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Would you welcome into your fraternity, club, or other social organization | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Which nationality do you consider superior* . . . . . | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

* List five in order of superiority by putting numerals 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 under the appropriate headings

*Procedure:* For the first five questions, put in each of the columns the number corresponding to the reaction listed below which most nearly fits your feelings in the matter:

   1. Never would.    2. Very doubtful.    3. Possibly.    4. Very probably.
                  5. Unquestionably would.

2. Analyze your prejudices on the scale you have constructed. Compare your findings with the findings of other class members. How much variation is there?

3. What are the basic social prerequisites to social toleration?

4. Are we more intolerant to things and persons than we are to ideas and attitudes? Why?

5. What can the school do to increase social amiability?

6. Outline the principles of educational sociology necessary to a complete understanding of group intolerance.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 7, sections 35, 37.

2. Bogardus, E. S., "A Social Distance Scale," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17:265–271, January–February, 1933.

3. Groves, Chapter 12.

4. Hart, Hornell, Chapters 19, 20.

5. Kinneman, pp. 166–169.

6. Kulp, pp. 257–260.

7. Ross, Chapters 13, 14, 15, 25, 26.

8. Tuttle, Chapter 18.

9. Waller, pp. 323–325.

---

## EIGHT BASIC ECONOMIC ILLS

PROBLEM. *Can education become a really vital factor in helping society overcome the social and economic difficulties which hinder progress?*

*Case:*

The Twentieth Century Fund, which was founded to make research studies into the economic maladjustments in American life, presents as a result of research eight basic economic ills, which in brief are as follows:

1. *War.* It is necessary in all industrial nations to eliminate progressively the economic rivalries and factions which are chief among the causes of war.

2. *Waste in distribution.* Waste and inefficiencies in marketing and selling are offsetting much of the savings from highly perfected machinery.

3. *Unemployment.* Technological unemployment resulting from the increased use of labor-saving machines, helps to make acute social problems even in times of slight business depression.

4. *Stock market cycles.* There has been little or no study of the wide stock-market cycles which are the cause of much of the economic ills.

5. *Wastes in corporate finance.* There seems to be considerable evidence that many mergers are basically unsound and will be the cause of future economic disturbances of a far-reaching sort.

6. *Uneven application of science to industry.* Industries like

agriculture, textiles, housing, coal-mining, etc., have been very much behind other industrial development in the application of modern techniques of large-scale production, which has seriously hampered prosperity.

7. *Consumer credit.* Over $7,000,000,000 are loaned to borrowers of small amounts, and without anything in the way of bank collateral. The economy and safety of this system is being seriously questioned.

8. *High cost of medical care.* It is maintained that medical service has not yet been organized like other services, so that it can be bought and paid for easily by the average man, which is believed to be a great drawback to economic stability.

*Discussion:*

1. Explain Cooley's contention regarding the tentative nature of progress. Show how the very character of the "basic economic ills" listed above proves this theory in so far as they may indicate a stage of progress in advance of a century ago.

2. Explain the three theories of social progress — biological, social, and educational. In what way do any of the above so-called ills illustrate the operation of any of these theories?

3. What are the important forces working against social progress? Classify the economic ills listed above under these forces.

4. What is education's contribution to social progress? How can education help to overcome the above eight economic ills?

5. How can education help "smooth the curve of progress?" If education had been thus operative during the last century, which of the above ills might have been avoided? Explain.

6. Select one of the above mentioned economic ills and show what would be necessary in the way of education and social progress to overcome it. List the theories of educational sociology upon which you base your plan.

*Sources:*
1. Bogardus, Chapter 8.
2. Finney, Chapter 25.
3. Good, pp. 312–315.
4. Kinneman, Chapter 39.
5. Kulp, Chapter 18.
6. Peters, Chapter 17.
7. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 14.
8. Snedden, *Educational Sociology,* Chapter 2.
9. Cooley, *Social Process,* Chapter 34.

## THE STANDARD OF LIVING

PROBLEM. *How can education contribute towards establishing a more generally acceptable standard of living for the masses?*

*Case:*

A well-known president of a New York savings bank recently stated that an acceptable yearly income for a family of four should be approximately $5000, with expectation of a normal increase as the years went on. He felt this would be necessary to insure living comfortably, providing an education for the children, and putting aside an adequate amount each year in savings. To this there should be added a minimum of $500 increase for each additional child, though an increase of $1000 per additional child would be more nearly ideal. This total might be decreased if the family were living in a town of, or under, 30,000 inhabitants.

In contrast to this there recently appeared in the *Literary Digest* an article entitled " Champion Nickel Stretchers " in which it was shown how the Kincaid family in Oklahoma, with fifteen children ranging in age from one to twenty-four years, lived on an annual income of $1800. All but one of these children were living at home.

*Discussion:*

1. Define standard of living. Justify or refute Finney's claim that it is a social institution.

2. Contrast the probable social and educational status of the

Kincaid family with what it would be if they had an annual income of what was outlined above as ideal. Of what concern is it to society to see to it that the average family receives a more nearly ideal annual income?

3. Can a uniformly adequate standard of living be attained in an economy based on the profit motive? Why?

4. List some of the effects upon society of the raising or lowering of the standard of living.

5. Show what the school can do to help raise the standard of living of the poorer classes. Should this be a concern of the school? Why?

6. What important principles of educational sociology have you gathered from this discussion?

*Sources:*
1. Finney, Chapters 12, 22.
2. Good, p. 315.
3. Snedden, Chapter 13.

# DEMOCRACY — AN UNPROVEN EXPERIMENT

PROBLEM. *What can public education do to help perpetuate our democratic form of government?*

*Case:*

Professor Thomas H. Reed of the University of Michigan, an international authority in the field of political science, in a recent public utterance spoke as follows:

Democracy is in greater danger today than ever before. We fought only a few years ago to make the world safe for democracy, but now it is attacked on the right by Fascism and on the left by Communism, both of which deny the right of the majorities to rule, both of which rely on dictatorship based on force as a means of government. In the midst of the fluctuating and futile politics of Europe, the result in part of a multi-party system, the vigor and consistency of dictatorship have enticed the imagination of many of the most brilliant minds. Fascism is established in Italy, Communism in Russia, and there is not a state in Europe that is not threatened by one or the other or both.

In America we cannot claim immunity from these threats. . . . Discontent with the futility of politics is growing. . . . Already a large section of the American public is indifferent to elections. If democracy is to be preserved it has got to be by some deliberate effort in training for citizenship. Democracy is, in Mazzini's words, " a government of all, by all, under the leadership of the best and wisest," and it is necessary both that our universities train far-sighted leaders and that our public school systems train intelligent and clear-sighted followers. Both have been failing in their obligation, in large degree because of lackadaisical educational standards. . . .

In particular we must realize that it is necessary deliberately to train through our public schools our future citizens. This training is now sadly neglected. We have tried to load on the so-called "civics" courses the responsibilities that ought to be a part of the whole curriculum. . . .

Educators say that the curriculum is too crowded — that citizenship training is merely one of a number of subjects clamoring for admission. I believe that training for citizenship in a democracy is the most fundamental work of the schools, and that the curriculum framers should begin with the subjects fundamental to intelligent citizenship and then devote the rest of the available time to other things.

*Discussion:*

1. What are the functions and social importance of the state? How does the democratic form of government measure up to these functions? Is it superior in this respect to other forms of government? Prove.

2. How should education function as a telic agent of the state? Would not the telic function of education operate more effectively in an autocratic form of government than in a democratic? Substantiate.

3. What are the dangers of the political manipulation of the schools in a democracy? How can this be avoided? Be specific in your answer.

4. Why do intelligent and educated people refuse to take public office? (See — "What About the Lawyers?", *Harper's Magazine,* October, 1931, pp. 542–49.) What should be the school's contribution to this problem?

5. What should be the elements of a school curriculum for the effective training for citizenship? Indicate how the elements should operate through the curriculum as a whole.

6. What are the sociological principles underlying the relationship between state and education? Upon what further sociological principles is your plan in question 5 based?

*Sources:*
   1. Bogardus, Chapter 8.
   2. Good, Chapter 14.
   3. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 8.
   4. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 9.

# THE NEED OF TELIC EDUCATION RELATIVE
# TO THE FAMILY

PROBLEM. *Are the ideals for the education of prospective mother-hood as they existed a generation ago, equal to the task of train-ing children for the new generation?*

*Case:*

   Mrs. Konantz as a girl matured rapidly and became very beautiful and popular. When it came time for her to enter high school she went away to a larger town and lived with relatives. Because of her attractiveness she always had many boy friends and took an active part in all social affairs of the school. When she reached the sophomore year of high school she became much attached to one of the senior boys, lost her interest in school work, and did only enough studying to keep eligible. At the end of the year she and Harry were married and settled down in this town. With his limited educational preparation, he was able to earn only a fair income so that the large family they reared lived on only a moderate scale. Their children, however, inherited their parents' natural abilities and did well in their school work, all finishing the high school and some going on to college. While the children were in the grades, Mrs. Konantz was always their pal and did everything to help them in their school work. When they got into high school, the older boy developed a keen interest in the sciences, and the elder daughter became absorbed in music. Thus, their interests went beyond the experience of the mother who realized they were

slipping away from her control. As the children became older, this divergence of interests became more pronounced and the mother, feeling this keenly and being apparently unable to make the home as attractive to them as she wished, worried herself into a state of mental and emotional exhaustion.

*Discussion:*

1. How did education fail to prepare Mrs. Konantz for her duties as a mother in the new civilization? Was she entirely to blame for not having gained an adequate educational training for her future home responsibilities? Why?

2. How in this age has homekeeping become more of a profession than ever before?

3. What are the spiritual functions of a mother in the modern home?

4. What is involved in the training of a modern mother in order that the home may be a completely satisfactory unit in building up our new civilization? Outline an adequate curriculum to train for homekeeping today.

5. Upon the basis of what principles of educational sociology can you justify courses in the high school for training in parenthood?

*Sources:*

1. Betts, pp. 59–67.

2. Burgess, John S., "The Dilemma of the Modern Family," *Sociology and Social Research,* 18:131–139, November–December, 1933.

3. Finney, Chapter 10.

4. Kinneman, Chapters 40, 42.

5. Smith, *Introduction,* pp. 70–81.

6. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 128–136, 140–143.

7. Snedden, Chapter 12.

# PROBLEM 80

---

## THE SCHOOLS SUPPLEMENT HOME TRAINING

PROBLEM. *To what extent should the schools take over responsi-bilities of training which the home may fail to meet?*

*Case:*

At a recent state convention of sheriffs, the director of the State Training School for Police decried the fact that there was no longer any discipline in the home. He said the combination of laxness in home discipline and easy transportation furnished by the automobile was filling the penitentiaries. At the same meeting a prominent probate judge put himself on record as believing that one of the greatest causes for juvenile delinquency was the fact that children didn't get enough spankings at home.

The schools are increasingly assuming responsibilities for child training in spheres which used primarily to be thought of as functions of the home. Trade training, character training, training for worthy home membership, training in politeness and courtesy, courses in shop which are intended primarily to train a person in the use of tools about the home, training in the matter of diet and health habits — all these and many more the school now undertakes to handle.

*Discussion:*

1. Give as many illustrations as you can of actual phases of home training which the school now undertakes. Upon the basis of what sociological principle can this be justified?
2. List some of the social factors which are undermining the

influence of the home upon the children. Why should society be concerned about these matters?

3. What are the direct contributions of the home to the education of children? Can these contributions be equally well made through other social agencies? Substantiate your answer.

4. Enumerate some of the difficulties of effective home education. How can they be overcome? How can educational forces help?

5. In what specific ways can home and school best co-operate in the education of the child? What is the sociological basis for such co-operation?

6. Summarize the sociological principles growing out of this discussion.

*Sources:*
1. Betts, pp. 60–66.
2. Good, pp. 85–121, 151–183.
3. Groves, Chapters 5, 6, 7.
4. Peters, pp. 269–294.
5. Smith, *Introduction,* pp. 75–84.
6. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 132–147.
7. Snedden, pp. 249–255.

## CONTROVERSY AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

PROBLEM. *Can controversial subjects of a social nature be taught in the public schools?*

*Case:*

A young man was interviewed by a board of control for a responsible administrative position. One of the members of the board asked him if he would permit the teaching of controversial subjects in the institution. When asked for illustration he cited the following: the teaching of evolution, racial equality, infallibility of our form of government, the necessity of maintaining the Eighteenth Amendment, free trade, the sacredness of the church, national isolation, and preservation of the gold standard. The young man took the position that an educational institution ought to be sufficiently free to present materials which have adequate scientific support. He also held that controversy, after all, was the result of emotional rather than factual interpretation. Therefore, the introduction of certain items into the classroom is dependent upon, first, social significance and importance of the issue; second, community-social interpretation levels; third, personality and emotional tone of the individual introducing the issue; and fourth, social importance of aroused concomitant issues.

*Discussion:*

1. When in your opinion is a subject controversial? Give reasons for your answer.

2. Can or should our schools be free of controversial issues? Why?

3. How can social issues be introduced into the curriculum so that social progress may be enhanced? Be specific in your plan.

4. Do you agree with the young man's analysis of the psychological factors of controversy? Why?

5. Who shall be responsible for determining what controversial social issues shall be introduced into the school? Explain.

6. Write a 1,000 word theme on the sociology of controversy.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Chapter 6.

2. Briggs, Thomas H., " Propaganda and the Curriculum," *Teachers College Record,* 34:468–480, March, 1933.

3. Coe, George A., " Shall We Indoctrinate? " *Progressive Education,* 10:140–143, March, 1933.

4. Finney, pp. 281–287.

5. *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* 8:86–89, 90–93, 94–97, 98–101, October, 1933. (Various articles.)

6. Good, pp. 384–386.

7. Odegaard, Chapter 9.

8. Schuker, Louis A., " Indoctrination: Much Ado About Nothing," *High Points,* 16:5–17, March, 1934.

9. Tildsley, John L., " Controversial Topics in the Social Sciences? " *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* 8:215–218, December, 1933.

## THE SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF PUBLIC OPINION

PROBLEM. *How can public opinion be mobilized to desirable ends?*

*Case:*

A business man on his way to his office was stopped by four of his fellow townsmen all asking the same questions: " Have you heard about the terrible crime committed in our town last night? " The owner of a restaurant on returning home with his wife during the night had been stopped and robbed. The wife had been struck on the head with a pipe and her skull fractured. The husband was forced to drive the bandit to the edge of the city where he disappeared into the night. Before noon the town was stirred up over the attack. One man remarked that public opinion is now aroused and there is going to be a clean-up in this city.

In certain states during 1932 and 1933, many schools were threatened with shortened terms and in some cases failure to open because of insufficient funds. There was a refusal on the part of some state officials to give the situation consideration. One educator said that there was insufficient public opinion to force state action and that little of a constructive nature could be counted on until the public was aroused to action.

In the first example public opinion is aroused and in the second case a serious social situation cannot be dealt with because widespread public opinion could not be created.

*Discussion:*

1. What is public opinion? What creates public opinion? Characterize public opinion in the United States.

2. What is the duty of the public school and educators in creating public opinion for social good? How can they do this? Illustrate with practical examples.

3. How effective are such devices as the National Radio Forum, the National Council on Education broadcasts and like agencies in creating public opinion? Give your reasons for your answer.

4. How does public opinion differ from crowd and mob action? Illustrate.

5. What is the social responsibility of the church and newspapers as molders and creators of public opinion? Why? Evaluate their effectiveness.

6. Analyze the success of the sale of Liberty Bonds during the War, the National Recovery Act and like efforts in so far as achieved by a mobilization of various agencies to create public opinion.

7. Analyze public opinion and state the pyscho-sociological factors creating it and explaining its influence.

*Sources:*

1. Angell, Norman, *The Public Mind,* E. P. Dutton and Company, New York, 1927.

2. Bogardus, Chapter 7, section 35.

3. Bogardus, E. S., " Measuring Public Opinion," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17:465–469, May–June, 1933.

4. Cooley, *Social Process,* Chapter 31.

5. Graves, Brook, *Readings in Public Opinion.*

6. Kulp, Chapter 14.

7. Lippmann, Walter, *Public Opinion,* Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1922.

8. Odegaard, Peter, *The American Public Mind.*

9. Park and Burgess, pp. 791–796.

10. Pemberton, H. Earl, "Optimum Scale for Rating Public Opinion," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17:470–472, May–June, 1933.

11. Peters, pp. 370–371.

## PUBLIC OPINION AS A MEANS OF SOCIAL CONTROL

PROBLEM. *Does education control public opinion or does public opinion control education? Which should be the dominant social control?*

*Case:*

Although Marjorie was undoubtedly a fun-loving girl and was popular because of her friendliness as well as because of her beauty, she was an earnest worker and had high ideals. When her teacher assigned a theme on modern civilization as seen through the eyes of George Washington paying an imaginary visit to the United States today, Marjorie entered into the spirit of the project wholeheartedly. She gave her imagination full play and entered into a criticism of modern American society that was quite clever and also showed good discrimination for a high school student. She was perhaps a little too eager to make an amusing climax to her essay when she brought it to a close by saying that George Washington was impressed and interested during the whole excursion until he caught sight of a modern flapper coming down the street. " And then I lost George." The teacher, the superintendent, and the board of education were each in turn and collectively called to account at the bar of local public opinion for this " improper attitude towards and lack of decent respect for the Father of our Country." Members of local patriotic organizations brought so much pressure to bear that Marjorie was dismissed from school in

this her senior year, her brilliant record entirely discounted, and her own happiness and fine prospects seriously blighted.

*Discussion:*
1. What is social control? Illustrate.
2. List various means of social control and show how each operates.
3. What are the advantages and the disadvantages of public opinion compared with law as a means of social control? Show how the above instance may illustrate your answer.
4. Contrast authoritative and rational procedure as methods of disciplinary control. Which should have operated in Marjorie's case? What then would have been the probable outcome?
5. What are the sociological principles underlying punishment, rewards, and discipline in general which a teacher should keep in mind?
6. Summarize the important principles of educational sociology which you have gathered that underlie all questions of social control.

*Sources:*
1. Good, Chapter 19.
2. Groves, Chapter 14.
3. Kinneman, Chapters 27, 28, 29, 31.
4. Kulp, Chapter 14.
5. Peters, Chapter 16.
6. Ross, E. A., *Social Control.*
7. Snedden, *Educational Sociology,* Chapter 16.
8. Smith, *Introduction,* Chapter 18.
9. Smith, *Principles,* Chapter 13.

# THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF PROPAGANDA
# AND THE SCHOOL

PROBLEM. *Are there social dangers of propagandizing through the American schools?*

*Case:*

During every war period we hear a great deal about propaganda. In fact, certain forces are set afoot with the specific purpose of arousing the emotions of people to a fighting point. Stories of war atrocities are circulated among the people of the warring countries. It is thought that such stories are necessary to the successful propagation of a war. It is even said that a war cannot be carried on without propaganda.

We are not so quick to recognize propaganda in other fields of human endeavor. This is especially true of the public schools. Groups may introduce propaganda into the schools for selfish ends and the great majority of people remain wholly unaware of the movement. The magnates of a trust have divided the country into districts and appointed managers, assistant managers, superintendents, and other hired employees to develop public opinion in favor of the activities of the trust. An attempt is being made to control legislatures, public educators, school boards, municipal authorities, clubs, organizations, and newspapers. This is not all. The trust has been successful in getting courses favorable to their cause introduced into several universities. Evidence also shows that the trust was successful in bring-

ing about a revision of textbooks used in the public schools of some states.

As long as social control and regulation are dependent upon public opinion propaganda will be used. The schools, however, are for the purpose of educating children. Propaganda is in conflict with education, for propaganda narrows the mind and education broadens the mind. The very nature and purpose of the school argues for free discussion. If all social issues are freely discussed in the light of objective facts, there can be no cause for criticism, but if groups secretively use the schools as centers of propaganda social progress is endangered.

*Discussion:*

1. Define propaganda in your own words. Give several illustrations of propaganda.

2. Do you find evidence that our schools are being used by special interests for special purposes? Cite your evidence.

3. What are the psychological motives of propaganda? Cite illustrations showing the operation of these motives.

4. If schools become centers of special interests what social dangers may result? List various examples of " special interests " — commercial, political, and religious — that you believe have at one time or another sought to utilize the schools for their own ends.

5. List all the principles of educational sociology of value to an educator in dealing with propaganda in the schools.

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, pp. 255–260.

2. Briggs, Thomas H., " Propaganda and the Curriculum," *Teachers College Record,* 34:468–480, March, 1933.

3. Finney, pp. 281–287.

4. Good, pp. 384–386.

5. Hart, Hornell, pp. 295–300.

6. Norris, Senator G. W., "The Power Trust in the Public School," *Journal of the National Education Association,* pp. 277–278, November, 1929.

7. Odegaard, Chapter 7.

8. Park and Burgess, pp. 837–841.

9. Thompson, Carl D., *Confessions of the Power Trust,* E. P. Dutton and Company.

## WHOLESOME LEISURE

PROBLEM. *Upon what sociological bases can the schools be justi-*
*fied in expending time, money, and energies in the development*
*of a program of out-of-class recreational and general develop-*
*mental activities that are not primarily academic in character?*

*Case:*

There have been in the current magazines of late a number
of articles arguing that the schools should pay more attention to
the training of children in the use of leisure time. An article in
the *Atlantic Monthly* called this failure upon the part of the
school " one of the outstanding defects in modern education."
But just exactly what this training ought to consist of has not
been indicated. However, a study by O. D. Wyatt of Colorado
State Teachers College has sought to give us definite informa-
tion as to how some adults do spend leisure time. Some of the
results of this investigation may be summarized as follows:

1. These adults average 1.7 hours per week in indoor recreational
activities. Forty-one per cent of this time is spent in dancing; swimming
takes up another 21 per cent of the time; and gymnasium work or basket-
ball account for another 18 per cent of this time.

2. These adults average 12.2 hours per week in outdoor recreational
activities of which automobile riding, walking, and shopping make up
75 per cent of the time.

3. These adults average 15.0 hours per week in entertainment activities,
in which reading for pleasure takes a large part of the time. Automobile
riding and listening to the radio, however, together use up 75 per cent
of the time.

4. These adults average 1.2 hours per week in community service.

5. These adults average 16.1 hours per week in activities for self-improvement, 73 per cent of which time is spent studying and some form of reading for improvement.

6. These adults average 6.5 hours per week in home activities, 80 per cent of which time is used for letter writing, repairs about the house, "loafing," "fooling around," and extra sleeping.

7. These adults average 1.7 hours per week in social activities, 63 per cent of which time is spent playing bridge.

8. A total of four-fifths of all the time spent in the above seven types of leisure time activities is spent in self-improvement, entertainment, and outdoor activities.

*Discussion:*

1. Give a fairly complete classification of the extra-curricular activities now found in the schools. Show to what extent they do or do not meet the needs of training for adult leisure-time activities as shown in the above study.

2. Indicate the extent to which students participate in the various types of extra-curricular activities offered them. Considered from this point of view would you say that students in general are getting the type of training for leisure-time activities that they need?

3. Outline a program of school and college physical and recreational activities that will be most likely to function in the adult lives of the present student population.

4. What is the effect of participation in extra-curricular activities upon pupils' scholarship? Bring in specific data if possible.

5. What are some of the more important difficulties that arise in administering a program of extra-curricular activities? Show how some of the more important sociological values may be invalidated if these difficulties are not properly met.

6. Evaluate the extra-curricular program as a whole in the

light of the sociological, educational, and health values accruing. Can it be justified? On the basis of what principles of educational sociology?

*Sources:*

1. Bogardus, Emory S., " Avocation and Personality," *Sociology and Social Research,* 18:275–281, January–February, 1934.

2. Burns, C. Delisle, *Leisure in the Modern World,* The Century Company, New York, 1933.

3. Finney, Chapter 8.

4. Fox, John F., " Leisure-Time Backgrounds in a Suburban Community," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 7:493–503, April, 1934.

5. Flad, Marion, " Leisure-Time Activities," *Sociology and Sociological Research,* 18:265–274, January–February, 1934.

6. Goldfield, Abraham, " The Penny Game Room," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 7:520–522, April, 1934.

7. Harap, Henry, " Planning the Curriculum for Leisure," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 7:308–320, January, 1934.

8. Kaplan, Frank, " Block Recreational Program," *Journal of Educational Sociology,* 7:516–519, April, 1934.

9. Leis, Eugene I., *The New Leisure Challenges the Schools,* National Recreation Association, New York, 1933.

10. Lundberg, George A., " Social Aspects of the New Leisure," *Sociology and Social Research,* 17:417–425, May–June, 1933.

11. May, H. L., and Petgen, D., *Leisure and Its Uses,* A. S. Barnes and Company, New York, 1928.

12. Payne, Chapter 7.

13. Peters, pp. 262–264.

14. *Recent Social Trends,* Vol. II, Chapter 18.

15. Smith, *Principles,* pp. 279–291.

16. Tuttle, Chapter 29.

## " WHITHER ADULT EDUCATION "

Problem. *How can the available resources be best directed to-wards the further education of adult citizens?*

*Case:*

"... they show
How far the gulf stream of our youth may flow
Into the arctic regions of our life.
*       *       *
For age is opportunity no less
Than youth itself, though in another dress."

The New England town meetings from the seventeenth cen-tury on were practical schools of civic education. From that time until today adult education has been abroad in the land in nu-merous forms and in many guises.

No one knows how many other millions of adults are having their minds refurnished, their ideas remolded, and their char-acters reshaped by such training agencies as the public forums, library services, federal agriculture and home economics agents, radio addresses and programs, general adult education classes, parent education, church programs of education, alumni edu-cation projects, professional societies' activities, conferences, conventions, institute programs, art, music, dramatic clubs, fra-ternal and social organizations, newspapers and current periodicals, pamphlets and bulletins, the experiential training of one's job, the broadening effects of travel, horizons widened

### Some Present-Day Adult Education Activities

| Type of Activity | Number of Units Reporting | Approximate Numbers Reached Annually |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Workers' study classes | | 30,000 |
| 2. University extension classes | 42 colleges | 300,000 |
| 3. Daytime continuation classes | 282 schools | 310,000 |
| 4. Evening-school classes | 664 cities | 1,250,000 |
| 5. Proprietary correspondence study | 334 schools | 2,000,000 |
| 6. Women's club study groups | | 3,000,000 |
| 7. Lyceum courses | 28 bureaus | 5,000,000 |
| 8. Chautauqua programs | 24 companies | 5,000,000 |
| 9. Educationally conducted museums | 170 museums | 30,000,000 |
| 10. Schools in industry, as for example: | | |
| Insurance Institute of America | 1,500 | |
| Standard Oil Co. of N. Y. & N. J. | 2,000 | |
| Milwaukee Electric Railway & Light | 2,000 | |
| National Metal Trades | 1,880 | |
| New York Stock Exchange | 3,300 | |
| New York Edison | 6,000 | |
| Western Electric Co. | 9,400 | |
| United Typothetae of America | 10,000 | |
| American Institute of Banking | 58,000 | |

by fairs, exhibits, displays, and no end of other educational influences always at work upon us.

Out of this welter of forces playing ceaselessly upon our human potentialities comes a continuous bombardment of educational influences, often more confusing than enlightening. Latent powers are being brought to fruition of good or evil, without any definition of ultimate goals and without intelligent direction. It is criminal to waste these social resources, especially in a society where intelligence even more than just literacy is vital to our survival. All the elements of an adequate program of adult education seem to be at hand and, after a fashion, actually working. But where is the necessary direction and guidance?

*Discussion:*

1. Define adult education. What should be its functions?

2. List every adult education agency of importance, formal or informal, that is at work in your community. Attempt to approximate the number of adults reached by these. What important adult educational needs are not being met by these agencies?

3. Report extensively upon one field of adult education that is being carried on with some evidences of success in the United States.

4. Draw up a check list of criteria by which any adult educational project can be evaluated in terms of social desirability and effectiveness. Evaluate the agencies you have listed under 2 by this check list.

5. Indicate in some detail the steps necessary in setting up and effectually operating a program of adult education that would meet reasonably well the adult needs of some community with which you are familiar. How could such a program be financially supported?

6. What basic principles of educational sociology would justify the program of adult education which you have outlined in 5 above?

*Sources:*

1. Congdon, Wray H., and Henry, David D., *Adult Education, a Bibliography with Annotations and an Introduction,* Michigan School Service Co., Lansing, Mich., 1934.

2. *Handbook of Adult Education,* American Association of Adult Education, New York, 1934.

3. Kotinsky, Ruth, *Adult Education and the Social Scene,* D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1933.

4. Proctor, William A., *Bibliography on Adult Education,* American Association of Adult Education, New York.

## SIXTEEN TO TWENTY-FIVE

PROBLEM. *How adequately is society in the United States look-
ing after the out-of-school youth in his later adolescence and
earlier adulthood?*

*Case:*

The seriousness of the juvenile delinquency problem in the
United States; the increase of unemployment and of leisure for
young people; the unparalleled complexity of the economic, so-
cial, and moral problems which confront youth today; the
weakened hold of the home upon children — these and other
problems are reasons for demanding a revaluation of our train-
ing programs for young men and women out of school but not
settled in their life careers. The following principles for such a
program were evolved after a serious study of these problems by
some ninety educational and social workers meeting in Wash-
ington in a " Conference on Youth Problems." Excerpts from a
mimeographed report of these findings are given herewith:

<div align="center">PRINCIPLES AND POLICIES</div>

1. *General*

   a. A hopeless, despairing generation of youth is a threat to sound
      national advancement. The welfare of youth demands a place in
      all plans of social reconstruction. . . .

   b. Effective social planning requires a balanced program of work,
      community participation, education, and recreation for youth.
      Such a program is necessary for the conservation and develop-
      ment of the power inherent in the youth of the nation.

    c. The spirit of self-help and youth responsibility should dominate all programs instituted for youth.

    d. The specific needs both of rural and urban youth should be considered in working out each aspect of a program for youth.

    e. The maladjustments among the youth of Negro and other minority racial groups resulting from the inadequacies of their educational and recreational provisions and from unemployment arising from the depression have all tended to accentuate their problems, which in consequence merit special attention.

2. *Employment*

    a. Since the urge to work is practically universal among youth and the right to work is recognized as inherent, organized society for its own preservation and the welfare of its people is responsible for providing developmental opportunities or activities until youth is economically able to meet his basic needs; and then to assure every individual through co-operating with him in his own best efforts, opportunities for exercising his abilities in an occupation which will provide adequate support.

3. *Education and Guidance*

    a. Curricula and administration: Many young people are leaving school and entering the labor market as active competitors with adults because:

        (1) The traditional curriculum is insufficiently adapted to their interest, needs, and types of ability.

        (2) Our competitive measures, such as marks, organization by grades, and honor rolls do not make provisions for individual differences in abilities and aptitudes, and as a result not only discourage a student from developing his talents but create an attitude in inferiority and failure which leads to anti-social habits and even to mental maladjustment.

    b. The out-of-school youth.

        (1) Between the ages of 16 and 25 there are millions of young people who are at the present time unemployed and not in school. Many of these young people have been thwarted in

their desire to get an education; most of them have never had steady employment; many have not been profitably employed for even a single day. Their morale is badly shattered.

(2) If the situation confronting this group is to be materially improved the attack must be on a nation-wide basis. It is felt however that no set program for the nation-wide mobilization of youth according to a pre-conceived plan is either desirable or feasible. On the other hand, due to the importance of the high morale of youth as a national asset, the mobile character of our people, and rapid population shifts, this problem must be approached from a national standpoint.

(3) With federal co-operation, state and local governments and agencies must assume responsibility for survey, analyzing, planning, and developing programs for out-of-school youth. The problem is one which cannot be considered apart from a general program of social planning. . . .

(4) In planning a program, wide variation will be necessary to take care of differences in backgrounds, racial characteristics, age groups, sex, family status, vocational and educational background and status, attitudes, and types of community. . . .

c. Guidance.

(1) The social, economic, and industrial changes that have taken place so rapidly during the last decade have greatly increased the complexity and difficulty of the problem of youth. They can no longer look forward to employment even in juvenile occupations. Changes in the need for workers in various occupations, in the kind of work done, in the character of the preparation needed, in the length of hours on the job, have made it increasingly difficult to plan an occupational career. The failure of schools to provide types of work to meet the present needs of young people makes it difficult for them to work out intelligent educational plans. The prolongation of the period of unemployment and the decreased hours of work emphasize the problem of the profitable use

of leisure time. Personal adjustment to home, to school, to recreation, to social life, to occupations, are rendered peculiarly difficult by the present situation.

These problems cannot be solved intelligently by young people without assistance. Guidance is organized assistance given to young people in the solution of the critical problems that confront them. Its purpose is not to solve problems for youth, but to assist them to solve their own problems; to gradually build up in them the ability to get along without assistance. . . .

### 4. *Leisure-time activities*

a. Underlying principles.

(1) Leisure-time activities cannot be considered a satisfactory substitute for gainful employment.

(2) Society must face the responsibility for the choices now available to youth, many of which are deleterious, if not positively harmful.

(3) Society, because of its accumulated experience, has the responsibility for offering to youth genuine choices in the worth-while use of leisure time.

(4) These choices of leisure-time activities should grow out of the needs of youth as expressed by youth.

(5) Youth will and should be expected to exert leadership in the development of its own leisure-time activities.

(6) Supervision and administration should be in the hands of the individuals best equipped for it.

(7) Leisure pursuits of youth should be oriented in a leisure program for all ages.

b. Neglect of the age group 16 to 25.

It is believed that the efforts of the majority of functioning organizations concerned with the educational and leisure-time activities of youth are quite largely directed to the problems of the age groups below 16. Further, that the leisure problem is acute for the age group from 16 to 25. Therefore, an aggressive effort should be made to stimulate the leadership in educational and

recreational fields, to expand and/or supplement present activities so as to provide more adequately for the age group 16 to 25.

The needs of this group are believed to require the following:

(1) Extension of their programs and facilities to this age group by all agencies and organizations capable of such expansions.

(2) An invitation to youth to participate actively in conference to formulate policies and programs.

(3) A continuing study group whose purposes would be: (1) education; (2) crime prevention; (3) creation of new facilities for leisure and opportunities for employment; (4) recruiting and training of leaders.

(4) The recognition that in order to meet the challenge of youth, community leaders must concentrate upon prevention rather than upon the remedial aspects of the problem.

## Discussion:

1. Analyze and criticize this statement of principles in the light of the basic assumptions of educational sociology.

2. List any projects nation-wide in scope that are directed towards the more adequate training and education of youth from 16 to 25. Evaluate each such undertaking in the light of the principles laid down above.

3. Should programs to meet these needs of youth be undertaken by the federal government? State agencies? local agencies? private agencies not local in scope? by some combination of these? Specify. How could the program be supported? Justify your position.

4. Outline a program of youth activities for some community with which you are well acquainted, which would meet the requirements of the principles stated above. Evaluate it from the points of view of desirability, feasibility, and social adequacy.

## Sources:

1. Calkins, Clinch, *Youth Never Comes Again,* Committee on Unemployed Youth, 450 Seventh Ave., New York, 1933.

2. Carr, W. G., "More Schooling for Children as an Unemployment Relief Measure," *New York Herald Tribune*. Reprint, Office of Education, Washington, D. C., 1934.

3. Copeland, Royal S., "Education and the Prevention of Crime," *The Educational Record,* April, 1934.

4. "Crime Prevention Through Education," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association,* National Education Association, Washington, D. C., September, 1932.

5. Finney, Chapters 12, 13.

6. Heeble, Herbert H., "The Unemployed High School Graduate," *Journal of the National Education Association,* pp. 243–244, National Education Association, Washington, D. C., November, 1932.

7. Kinneman, Chapters 15–18.

8. Kulp, Book III.

9. Lloyd, John H., "Rain Checks on Diplomas," *School Life,* 18:29, October, 1932.

10. "Memorandum on the Transient Boy," United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C., 1932. (Mimeographed)

11. Minehan, Thomas, *Boy and Girl Tramps of America,* Farrar and Rinehart, New York, 1934.

12. *Recent Social Trends,* pp. 303–324, 767–779.

13. Studebaker, John W., "For 2,000,000 Youth," *School Life,* 20:220, 223, June, 1935.

14. "The Roamer's Paradise — With Uncle Sam as Host," p. 297, *The United States Weekly,* May 7, 1934.

15. Tuttle, Chapter 21.

## JUVENILE DELINQUENCY — CAUSE AND PREVENTION

PROBLEM. *Is delinquency a product of social misdirection which can be prevented if the correct social adjustments are made available?*

*Case:*

Recently, in a town of 10,000 people, a young man was arrested by the police for promoting gambling among the Negroes of that city. He was taken to the police station and questioned as to his previous criminal record. He insisted that he never had been arrested before and that he was forced to gamble because he could not locate honest employment. After hearing the testimony of the witnesses and the statement of the young man, the judge sentenced him to pay a fine of $25 or spend thirty days in jail. He paid the fine and was released. The chief of police forwarded the finger-prints of the young man to the proper department in Washington and asked for all the information the bureau had on file. A complete file of information came back indicating that he had been arrested in Cleveland, Ohio, for petty larceny and had been sentenced to the state reformatory for a period of three years. He had also been arrested in Akron, Ohio, for grand larceny and had been sentenced for five years to the state penitentiary. After his release from the Ohio state penitentiary, he was again arrested in Rochester, New York, on a charge of gambling, and sentenced to thirty days in jail. His case history is about as follows:

1. 10 years:

    Arrested with older boys on a charge of breaking and entering. Confined in detention home for a period of two weeks, and finally released to parents.

2. 10 years, 10 months:

    Arrested on a charge of truancy. The teachers and parents could not get him to attend school regularly. Placed on probation and released to parents.

3. 12 years:

    Arrested for petty stealing with two other boys. Held at the police station and later released to parents with the understanding that he report to the juvenile court officer once a month.

4. 12 years, 6 months:

    Arrested in company of his brother, charged with having stolen merchandise from a neighboring store. The brother assumed all the responsibility, thus saving him from a charge of violation of probation.

5. 14 years:

    Arrested with two other boys on a charge of robbery. Brought to court and committed to the state industrial school.

6. 15 years:

    Paroled from the state industrial school.

7. 16 years, 2 months:

    Arrested in a department store in the act of stealing. Released to his parents.

8. 17 years:

    Arrested for selling stolen goods. Taken to court and recommitted to the industrial school.

9. 18 years:

    Arrested on a charge of burglary. Sent to the house of correction.

10. 21 years:
    Arrested for petty larceny. Sentenced to the reformatory.

Another case: John Edwards, a young man of eighteen, is turned over to the court for attempted robbery armed. John walked into a gas station and ordered the attendant to turn over all the cash on hand. The attendant was complying, when suddenly he heard crying and, cautiously turning, found the hold-up man sobbing. The attendant disarmed him and the boy said, " I can't hold you up." He related that his family had had nothing to eat for several days, the father had had no work for months, and a sister-in-law was very ill and staying at their home. In desperation, he decided to hold up a gas station, but found himself unable to do so. The court, after listening to the story, dismissed the case and assisted in finding a job for the young man.

*Discussion:*
    1. Did the courts properly dispose of these cases? Why?
    2. Gather statistics and compile a table showing the causes of delinquency and the per cent each classification bears to the total.
    3. What influence does home condition have on delinquency? Prove your contention.
    4. A number of studies have been made showing the correlation between intelligence and delinquency. Consult several of these studies, state the conclusions of the studies, and your reactions to these conclusions.
    5. What influence do you think the movie and popular reading materials have on delinquency? Prove your statements.
    6. It is said that education can prevent delinquency. Refer to the bulletin " Crime Prevention Through Education," carefully analyzing the data and conclusions. In what ways do you agree

or disagree with this report? What can the school, the home, the church, and the community do about delinquency prevention?

7. Study several cases you are familiar with in your community or cases recently reported to your local juvenile court, indicating causes for the delinquency and possible treatment.

*Sources:*

1. *Crime Prevention Through Education,* National Education Association, Vol. X, No. 4, September, 1932.

2. Owens, Albert Alexander, *The Behavior Problem Boy,* University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, 1929.

3. Sterns, Albert Warren, *The Personality of Criminals,* Beacon Press, Boston, 1931.

4. Gillin, John Lewis, *Criminology and Penology,* Century Company, New York, 1926.

5. Shaw, Clifford R., *Delinquency Areas,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.

6. Shaw, Clifford R., *The Natural History of a Delinquent Career,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1931.

7. Murchison, Carl, *Criminal Intelligence,* Clark University, Worcester, Mass., 1926.

8. Mitchell, Alice Miller, *Children and Movies,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.

9. Bagley, William C., *Education, Crime, and Social Progress,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1931.

10. Thomas, W. I. and D. S., *The Child in America,* Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., New York, 1928.

11. Thrasher, Frederick M., *The Gang,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1927.

# PROBLEM 89

## SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES

PROBLEM. *To what degree is behavior the result of the social experiences of early childhood?*

*Case:*

John Stewart has always been considered a model boy by his parents and community. The father is a successful district insurance representative. He has held a high place in the city for a number of years, having served on the City Commission, Health Commission, Park Commission, and Commission for Re-Writing the City Charter. Everyone considers him a fine, upright citizen. From early childhood, the one ambition of the boy was to please his father. He has never made a move of any importance without first consulting him. He has one brother, five years younger, and no sisters. The mother, while she will not admit it, seems to favor the younger son and has on many occasions pointed out, in the presence of the older boy, the superiority of the younger. John graduated from high school with average marks. He was rather popular while in high school, participating in the many extra-curricular activities, was awarded a part in the senior play and commencement activities.

He started to college and apparently was doing at least average work, when suddenly he was overtaken with a consuming desire to commit suicide, which he attempted to do. Fortunately, the poison was not taken in sufficient quantity to kill him but

made him very ill. The father was shocked but assumed a sympathetic attitude, attempting to get at the seat of the trouble, which the boy himself cannot explain. His only explanation is that there are times when he becomes very blue and which are accompanied by a powerful desire to kill himself. The mother believes that it is just foolishness and that if he will settle down and do his work, forget about trying to commit suicide, he will be all right. Later in the term, the boy developed a different type of reaction. That is, after a period of depression, accompanied by desire to commit suicide, he would develop periods of nausea, accompanied by regurgitation of food. There seems to be no apparent reason for these periods. Later, the regurgitation of food has carried over to all nervous strains. The boy may be dressed in tuxedo, ready for a party, when the spell comes on. He, of course, is annoyed by his lack of control and desires to build up an escape. We have here a rather interesting case of suppression which, without doubt, goes back to early childhood experiences.

Another rather interesting case is that of James Roberts. James has a father who is more or less dominating and a mother overly retiring and sympathetic and very modest. The boy has gone through high school with an average record. He has not worked except for his father and has felt that he should not seek employment if his father needs him even in a minor way. As a result, the boy is quite dependent, very quiet, and retiring. He started to college but does not like it as he has no interest in study. He has a strong desire to work; it does not make much difference what the job is as long as he can get out and work.

*Discussion:*

    1. Analyze the above case histories. What difficulties do you find which may have their source in early childhood experiences?

2. Review your likes and dislikes. To what sources can you trace them?

3. List the things that annoy you. Locate the causes for these annoyances.

4. Refer to the *Mental Hygiene* or *Parents' Magazine* and report on studies or articles reporting the influence of early childhood experiences.

5. What sociological laws do you find which may be used to account for the behavior of these boys or which can be used in modifying their behavior?

6. How can the school and the home offer bad childhood influences?

7. Should our school systems offer courses on childhood training to parents? Why?

*Sources:*

1. Burnham, William H., *The Wholesome Personality,* D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1932.

2. Richards, Esther Loring, *Behavior Aspects of Child Conduct,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1933.

3. Thom, Douglas A., *Normal Youth and its Every Day Problems,* D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1932.

4. *The Child, the Clinic, and the Court,* New Republic, Inc., New York, 1925.

5. Van Waters, Miriam, *Youth in Conflict,* Republic Publishing Company, New York, 1926.

6. Shaw, Clifford R., *The Natural History of a Delinquent Career,* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1931.

7. *Mental Hygiene Magazine.*

8. *Parents' Magazine.*

# BIBLIOGRAPHY

The references have been so selected that those contained in the Minimum Class Library are sufficient for the course. Thus, colleges which do not have abundant library facilities may provide this limited selection of reference books which are adequate for a course in educational sociology. For colleges and universities with more ample library facilities, further sources classified under " Important Supplementary and Enriching Source Materials " are provided. The sources listed under " Important Supplementary and Enriching Source Materials " are frequently referred to in the problems but are not indispensable to the student in his solution of these problems. These supplementary sources may be used for such further enrichment of the course content as the instructor may desire, or as sources to which students with individual projects may turn. Especially in such procedures as those suggested below under the Individualized Procedure, these extended sources will be helpful. There is also provided at the end of each problem, space for the student to note further additional references which the instructor may wish to incorporate, especially as new books in the field appear.

## Minimum Class Library

Betts, G. H., *Social Principles of Education,* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1912.
*Bogardus, E. S., *Contemporary Sociology,* Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1931.

Cooley, C. H., *Social Organization*, New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909.

*Cooley, C. H., *Social Process*, New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1918.

**Educational Sociology, The Journal of*, Complete file, Room 42, Press Building, New York University, New York, N. Y. 9 nos.

*Finney, Ross L., *A Sociological Philosophy of Education*, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1928.

Good, Alvin, *Sociology and Education*, New York: Harper & Bros., 1926.

Hart, Hornell N., *The Science of Social Relations*, New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1927.

*Judd, Charles H., *Problems of Education in the United States*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933.

*Kinneman, John A., *Society and Education*, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1932.

*Kulp, Daniel H., *Educational Sociology*, New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1932.

*Odegard, Peter H., *The American Public Mind*, New York: The Columbia University Press, 1930.

Park, Robert E. and Burgess, Ernest W., *Introduction to the Science of Sociology*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924, 2nd Edition.

*Payne, E. G., Ed., *Readings in Educational Sociology*, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1932.

*Peters, C. C., *Foundation of Educational Sociology*, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1930, Revised Edition.

*President's Research Committee, *Recent Social Trends in the United States*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933.

*Ross, E. A., *Principles of Sociology*, New York: The Century Co., 1930, Revised Edition.

Smith, Walter R., *An Introduction to Educational Sociology*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929, Revised Edition.

*Smith, Walter R., *Principles of Educational Sociology*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928.

Snedden, David, *Educational Sociology for Beginners,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1928.

Tuttle, Harold S., *A Social Basis of Education,* Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1934.

*Waller, Willard W., *Sociology of Teaching,* New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1932.

Note: All starred (*) references are indispensable, and should be available in sufficient numbers that all the class may have ready access to them.


*Important Supplementary and Enriching Source Materials*

*Adult Education, Journal of,* The American Association for Adult Education, 60 East 42nd Street, New York, N. Y. Current.

Angell, Norman, *The Public Mind,* New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1927.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, *Library* and current publications, 700 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington, D. C.

Clow, F. R., *Principles of Sociology with Educational Applications,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1920.

Dewey, John, *Democracy and Education,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916.

*Education by Radio,* National Advisory Council on Radio in Education, 60 East 42nd Street, New York, N. Y. Weekly.

*Education on the Air,* Proceedings of the Institute for Education by Radio, Ohio State University, University Press, Columbus, Ohio. Annual.

Forman, Henry J., *Our Movie Made Children,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1933.

Fretwell, E. K., *Extra-Curricular Activities in Secondary Schools,* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931.

Groves, Ernest R., *Social Problems and Education,* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1925.

Hart, J. K., *A Social Interpretation of Education,* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1929.

Hartshorne, Hugh and May, Mark A., *Studies in Deceit,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1928.

*Judge Baker Foundation Reports,* Boston: Judge Baker Foundation, Little, Brown & Co., 1922.

*Junior-Senior High School Clearing House,* Inor Publishing Co., 450 Ahnaip St., Menasha, Wisconsin. Monthly.

Link, Henry C., *Education and Industry,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1923.

Lippmann, Walter, *Public Opinion,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1927.

Lundberg, George A., *Social Research,* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1929.

Martin, Everett Dean, *The Meaning of a Liberal Education,* W. W. Norton & Co., 1926.

*Mental Hygiene,* National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 372 Broadway, Albany, N. Y. Quarterly Bulletin.

Mitchell, Alice M., *Children and Movies,* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

Payne Fund Series, *Motion Pictures and Youth,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1933. (12 studies in 9 volumes.)

Peffer, Nathaniel, *Educational Experiments in Industry,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1932.

*Progressive Education,* Progressive Education Association, Washington, D. C. Monthly.

*Research Bulletin of the National Education Association,* The National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. Published five times a year.

*Review of Educational Research,* American Educational Research Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. Published five times a year.

Rugg, Harold O. and Shumaker, Ann, *The Child-Centered School,* Yonkers; The World Book Co., 1928.

*School and Society,* The Science Press, Lancaster, Pa. Weekly.

*School Life,* Official Organ of the Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior, Washington, D. C. Monthly.

Snedden, David, *Educational Sociology,* New York: The Century Co., 1922.

*Sociology and Social Research,* 3551 University Ave., Los Angeles. Bimonthly.

Thorndike, E. L. and others, *Adult Learning,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1928.

Wallas, Graham, *The Great Society,* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1914.

White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, Addresses and Abstract Reports, New York: The Century Co., 1931.

Young, Kimball, *A Source Book for Social Psychology,* New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1927.

# INDEX